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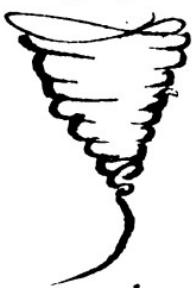
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G U I D E
FOR
W R I T I N G L A T I N:

CONSISTING OF
RULES AND EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.
BY
JOHN PHILIP KREBS,
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY AND PRINCIPAL SCHOOL DIRECTOR IN THE
DUTCHY OF NASSAU.

FROM THE GERMAN,
BY SAMUEL H. TAYLOR,
PRINCIPAL OF PHILLIPS ACADEMY.

SECOND EDITION.

ANDOVER:
ALLEN, MORRILL & WARDWELL.
NEW YORK: M. H. NEWMAN.

1845.

Feb. 1918. 45. 495

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P R E F A C E

TO THE FIRST AMERICAN EDITION.

JOHN PHILIP KREBS, the author of the following work, was born in Glauchau, in Prussia, near Halle, in the year 1771. In 1800, he was appointed Professor in the Gymnasium at Weilburg. The duties of his office he continued to discharge with great success till 1837, when he became Professor *Emeritus*. He was then appointed principal School Director,—and for this service he receives his former salary.

Besides the present work, he has published several others of much value. His Manual of Philological Works, illustrative of the classics, was published in 1822—3, in two volumes. He also edited an edition of Ovid. He is likewise the author of a Greek and Latin Grammar, Greek Lessons for beginners, and a treatise on Greek Accents. In 1842, he published the third edition of his Antibarbarus of the Latin Language, which contains a clear exhibition of those words and constructions which are not approved by the best classical writers. This is a book of great value to the classical scholar, and shows that the author has studied, with care and discrimination, the best Latin writers.

The following work has passed through nine editions in Germany. The plan, as will be seen, is somewhat different from any which has been used in this country. A principle or idiom of the language is first stated and explained, and then examples are given for practice. The author has made it his

object to guard against giving the student too much or too little assistance. By the latter, he would leave him in constant doubt respecting the various idioms ; by the former, he would give but little occasion for the exercise of the nicer powers of discrimination. A middle course, therefore, has been wisely adopted. Examples for practice are not always given at the close of every rule ; if so, neither memory, reflection nor judgment would be required. Often several rules are stated, and then the examples for practice are given promiscuously. Such an arrangement makes it necessary to study the rules attentively.

The book has been very favorably noticed by many of the leading classical journals of Germany. Flattering opinions of it have also been expressed by distinguished classical scholars, in private letters to the author.

The principal argument for writing Latin, in our own country, is the more thorough knowledge of it, which is thereby acquired. Those best qualified to judge on this subject, think that the Latin must be written, before it can be fully understood. In Germany, where the classics are more thoroughly and extensively studied than in any other country, the exercise of writing, and, in many instances, even of speaking Latin and Greek, is considered of the first importance. Within the last twelve years, not less than forty different treatises have appeared from the German press, to facilitate the writing of Latin.

The exercise of writing Latin makes the knowledge of it definite. Years are often spent in the loose and general study of the language, with little or no profit. But few of its principles are understood, and its force and beauty cannot be appreciated. Now, if the study of Latin is to be made useful in disciplining the mind, in giving it strength and energy, in making it capable of close application and nice distinctions, or, if we would open its richest fountains and draw from them their sweetest waters, we must study it radically. There is choice

gold in the mine, but it is found only by hard digging. The complaints, which are often made against the study of the classics, originate, in a great measure, from the want of a proper method of study. A language like the Latin cannot be supposed to be understood by a few misdirected efforts. The forms and force of its words, the nice use of its modes and tenses, the emphatic position of its words, the euphonic balancing and arrangement of its sentences, together with its varied idiomatic features, must become, as it were, vernacular to the student, before the proper advantage can be derived from it. It is not assumed, however, that the writing of Latin will alone secure such a result. This is but one of the means to be used. The more the language is read, the more easily and correctly will it be written, provided the reading be rightly directed; and the more it is written, the more easily and understandingly will it be read. In selecting a particular Latin word to express the corresponding English, the attention is directed more closely to it than if the same word was merely to be read. And should there be doubt respecting its exact use, it will be more carefully observed, every time it occurs in reading, until the classical usage is definitely fixed.

So in regard to a particular construction; if any question is raised respecting its correctness, the mode of solving the doubt will be the same as before. In this way, a knowledge of all the usages of the language may, in a short time, be acquired. The student who knows that he has a Latin exercise to prepare, will watch, with double attention, the form, the force and position of every word, the construction of every sentence, every new idiom, and every departure from the common usage. Thus the mind will ever be on the stretch of investigation,— and the study of the Latin be attended with pleasure and profit.

In writing Latin, the student will also acquire a more exact knowledge of his own language. Before he can translate an English sentence into Latin, he must have a precise idea of the thought it contains. Then he must mark the different

usages of the two languages, to see wherein they are alike, and wherein they differ. One must employ a preposition, where the other does not; one requires one mode, the other a different one; the arrangement of the sentences is different in each; one uses interrogatives, where the other dispenses with them. Thus, all the more striking differences between the two languages will be subjects of careful observation, and each be more fully understood.

It may be safely affirmed, therefore, that, in the time usually devoted to the study of Latin, a more accurate and extensive acquaintance with it can be acquired, by uniting the constant habit of writing with that of reading. Nor will the benefits of this thorough study of the Latin be confined to this language alone; the same habits of discrimination will be readily transferred to any other,—and the mind which has been accustomed to mark the resemblances and differences between the English and the Latin, will, at once and naturally, trace the analogies between other languages, and will be prepared for the close and successful investigation of whatever subjects may be presented.

It may be thought that the sentences in the examples for practice are too short. They do not generally contain whole fables or anecdotes. The author justly remarks on this point, “That the habit, adopted in some schools, of giving the beginner sentences involving several distinct principles, is a wrong one. He should first learn single rules and then apply them to practice. The landscape painter does not begin by drawing a whole landscape that is made up of many distinct objects; he first sketches the trunks of trees and the foliage, accustoms himself to represent stones, cliffs, grottos, streams, waterfalls, and all other possible objects which belong to a landscape. Then, when he has acquired skill in representing these single objects, he attempts a full picture. The same method should be pursued in writing Latin. Let the student begin with short detached sentences, let him use the rules given to illustrate

these, and, when he has acquired a facility in rendering these grammatically and correctly into Latin, let him pass to compound sentences, and then let him write full compositions in Latin. But before this can be done, much practice will be necessary."

In preparing the present work, the translator has been under the necessity of making many changes. In the original, the Latin is throughout compared with the German. Of course, much that was said respecting the agreement and disagreement between the German and Latin, would not be applicable to the English and Latin. It was necessary, therefore, to omit a number of sections, which could have no application to the English, and also to make changes in others, and often to omit or change single sentences. The translator has, moreover, added remarks of his own, where they seemed to be needed. For what is said, therefore, respecting the usage of the English, so far as it agrees with, or differs from the Latin, the translator alone is responsible.

All the examples for practice have not been translated, as it was thought, that no more would ordinarily be used, than will be found in the present edition. The small *Antibarbarus*, at the close of the German edition, has not been translated, from the fear that it would make the present volume too large and expensive. Should this work, however, be favorably received, it is the intention of the translator to prepare the *Antibarbarus* to accompany it.

The exercises for practice are designed to be written, till the student has acquired an ease in Latin composition. Then, after the portion to be translated has been thoroughly studied, it should be rendered immediately into Latin. It will also be useful for beginners, to translate extempore what they had written at the previous exercise.

After the translation was finished, the manuscript was read to Dr. Charles Beck, Professor of Latin in Harvard University, whose critical knowledge of both the German and Latin, ena-

bled him, at once, to detect any inaccuracies and to suggest such changes and additions as were required. The special acknowledgments of the translator are due to Dr. Beck for his valuable services thus rendered, and for the interest he has taken in the work.

The translator would also express his thanks to Mr. R. D. C. Robbins, Abbot Resident, Theological Seminary, for his highly valuable assistance in correcting the proofs and also for several useful suggestions.

Andover, August, 1843.

P R E F A C E

T O T H E S E C O N D A M E R I C A N E D I T I O N .

THE present edition of this work has been carefully revised and compared with the last German edition. Some additions have also been made by the translator, where the illustration of any idiom had been omitted, or where a more full statement of it seemed to be required. The principal alterations and additions may be found on pages 16, 48 note, 89—95, 99, 114 note, 117, 122, 124, 169, 183—189, 247, 294, 301 note, 319, 324—329, 336, 337, 346, 350, 356, 357, 380, 381, 396, 397, 400, 401, 406, 417, 418, 433, 457, 458; also the synonymes on pages 477—483. In making these additions, the best works accessible have been freely used, particularly the Latin Grammars of *Krüger*, *Rams-horn*, *Zumpt*, *Kühner* and *Reisig*.

As the duties of the translator in the institution with which he is connected, did not allow him sufficient time to prepare the present edition as soon as it was called for, he has been assisted by Mr. John N. Putnam, of the Theological Seminary, whose critical and extensive acquaintance with the Latin language had given him unusual qualifications for such a work.

Andover, December, 1844.

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GUIDE FOR WRITING LATIN.

PART I.

EXERCISES FOR BEGINNERS.

THE ARTICLES *THE* AND *A*.

1. THE definite article *the*, is not expressed in Latin; e. g. The man, *homo*; the woman, *femina*; the animal, *animal*. And so in the remaining cases of the singular and plural.
2. The indefinite article *a*, is not expressed in Latin; e. g. A man, *vir*; a woman, *femina*; a house, *tectum*.

AGREEMENT OF THE ADJECTIVE, PARTICIPLE AND PRONOUN WITH THEIR SUBSTANTIVE.

3. Every word which is united with a substantive, and defines it more fully, especially in relation to a quality, may be called a *qualifying* word. In English it usually stands before the substantive; e. g. A benevolent Deity. Here *benevolent* qualifies the substantive *Deity*. Further: A kind mother, a high house, the present day, this year, the singing birds. Such a qualifying word may be an adjective, numeral, pronoun or participle.

4. In English, the adjective is not varied on account of the gender or number of the substantive; e. g. A good father, a good mother, a good animal; and so in the plural, good fathers, etc. But in Latin the adjective is varied so as to agree

in gender, number and case with the substantive; e. g. *Pater bonus*, *mater bona*, *animal bonum*, *patres boni*.

In respect to gender and number, there is a difference between the English and the Latin.

5. (1) The gender of the substantives in the two languages is often different; e. g. *Stella* (a star) is feminine; *liber* (a book) is masculine; *corpus* (the body) is neuter, and so very many others; while in English these are all neuter. Hence in Latin before we unite an adjective with its substantive, we must ascertain the gender of the substantive, and then put the adjective in the gender which the substantive requires; e. g. A little book, *liber parvus*; a little star, *stella parva*; a little body, *corpus parvum*.

6. (2) Also the number of English and Latin substantives sometimes differ; e. g. A camp, *castra* (plural); a letter, *litterae* (plural); courage, *animi*; great courage, *magni animi*.

Remark. In English, the adjective, participle and pronoun usually stand before their substantive. In Latin, they can stand before and after the substantive. To prevent frequent mistakes in translating from English into Latin, it is advisable for beginners to place the substantive first; then they can put the adjective after it in the gender, number and case it requires.

The following examples are designed to exercise the student in uniting the adjective with the substantive.

7. First Declension.

These and the following examples are to be written in the nominative plural also. The Latin adjectives standing under the exercises are always given only in the masculine form.

The long¹ tail². The moist³ earth⁴. The white⁵ paper⁶. Human⁷ life⁸. The level⁹ way¹⁰. The dense¹¹ forest¹². The robust¹³ husbandman¹⁴. The renowned¹⁵ poet¹⁶. The fearful¹⁷ sailor¹⁸. The proud¹⁹ Persian²⁰. The new²¹ flint-stone²². The wild²³ Scythian²⁴.

¹ longus. ² cauda. ³ humīdus. ⁴ terra. ⁵ albus. ⁶ charta. ⁷ humanus.
⁸ vita. ⁹ planus. ¹⁰ via. ¹¹ densus. ¹² silva. ¹³ robustus. ¹⁴ agricōla.
¹⁵ clarus. ¹⁶ poēta. ¹⁷ pavīdus. ¹⁸ nauta. ¹⁹ superbus. ²⁰ Persa. ²¹ novus.
²² pyrites. ²³ ferus. ²⁴ Scytha.

8. *Second Declension.*

A sharp¹ nail.² A white horse³. A broad⁴ furrow⁵. A small⁶ field⁷. A renowned man. A sharp knife⁸. A paternal⁹ house¹⁰. An ancient¹¹ dialect¹². A long period¹³. A small meadow¹⁴. A long neck¹⁵. A cruel¹⁶ war¹⁷. A great sea¹⁸. An odoriferous¹⁹ laurel²⁰. A high²¹ cherry-tree²².

¹ acutus. ² clavus. ³ equus. ⁴ latus. ⁵ sulcus. ⁶ parvus. ⁷ ager. ⁸ culter. ⁹ paternus. ¹⁰ domus. ¹¹ antiquus. ¹² dialectus. ¹³ periodus. ¹⁴ pratum. ¹⁵ collum. ¹⁶ saevus. ¹⁷ bellum. ¹⁸ pelagus. ¹⁹ odorus. ²⁰ laurus. ²¹ altus. ²² cerasus.

9. *Third Declension.*

A beautiful flower¹. A great labor². A little goose³. A black⁴ coal⁵. A broad foot⁶. The ancient order⁷. Good flesh⁸. A painted⁹ image¹⁰. A high tree¹¹. A beautiful woman¹². A long journey¹³. A sharp bone¹⁴. White marble¹⁵. The second¹⁶ legion¹⁷. Pleasant¹⁸ spring¹⁹. Tender²⁰ age²¹. New peace²². Great praise²³. A little bird²⁴. A broad bridge²⁵. A great herd²⁶. A great fire²⁷. A little stone²⁸. A sharp tooth²⁹. A high sea³⁰. A broad forehead³¹. A clear³² fountain³³. A pleasant summer³⁴. A worthy³⁵ reward³⁶. A renowned name³⁷. A broad head³⁸. A great tribute³⁹. An ardent⁴⁰ youth⁴¹. Wet⁴² weather⁴³. A brave⁴⁴ breast⁴⁵. A renowned city⁴⁶. A long winter⁴⁷. A little mouse⁴⁸. A beautiful turtle-dove⁴⁹. The right⁵⁰ side⁵¹. A white swallow⁵². A deep⁵³ bog⁵⁴. The high grass⁵⁵. Cruel⁵⁶ death⁵⁷. A good⁵⁸ mother⁵⁹. Good parents⁶⁰. A new priest⁶¹. A new priestess⁶¹. A faithful⁶² companion⁶³. Faithful⁶² companions⁶³. A great contest⁶⁴.

¹ flos. ² labor. ³ anser. ⁴ ater. ⁵ carbo. ⁶ pes. ⁷ ordo. ⁸ caro. ⁹ pictus. ¹⁰ imago. ¹¹ arbor. ¹² mulier. ¹³ iter (profectio). ¹⁴ os. ¹⁵ marmor. ¹⁶ secundus. ¹⁷ legio. ¹⁸ jucundus. ¹⁹ ver. ²⁰ tener. ²¹ aetas. ²² pax. ²³ laus. ²⁴ avis. ²⁵ pons. ²⁶ grex. ²⁷ ignis. ²⁸ lapis. ²⁹ dens. ³⁰ mare. ³¹ frons. ³² liquidus. ³³ fons. ³⁴ aestas. ³⁵ dignus. ³⁶ merces. ³⁷ nomen. ³⁸ caput. ³⁹ vectigal. ⁴⁰ servidus. ⁴¹ juvenus. ⁴² humidus. ⁴³ tempestas. ⁴⁴ robustus (fortis). ⁴⁵ pectus. ⁴⁶ urbs (oppidum). ⁴⁷ hiems. ⁴⁸ mus. ⁴⁹ turtrur. ⁵⁰ dexter. ⁵¹ latus. ⁵² hirundo. ⁵³ profundus. ⁵⁴ palus. ⁵⁵ gramen. ⁵⁶ acerbus. ⁵⁷ mors. ⁵⁸ benevolus. ⁵⁹ parens. ⁶⁰ parentes. ⁶¹ sacerdos. ⁶² fidus. ⁶³ comes. ⁶⁴ certamen (dissensio).

10. *Fourth and Fifth Declension.*

A deep lake¹. A great carriage². A small house. A long hand³. A high tide⁴. A sharp needle⁵. A beautiful face⁶. A long row⁷. A festive⁸ day. A broad knee⁹. A long horn¹⁰.

That¹¹ old¹² oak¹³. The warm noonday¹⁴. The old customs¹⁵. The painted¹⁶ porches¹⁷. The Indian¹⁸ fig-tree¹⁹.

¹ lacus. ² curru (vehiculum). ³ manus. ⁴ fluctus. ⁵ acus. ⁶ facies.
⁷ series. ⁸ festus. ⁹ genu. ¹⁰ cornu. ¹¹ ille. ¹² annosus. ¹³ quercus.
¹⁴ meridies. ¹⁵ ritus. ¹⁶ pictus. ¹⁷ porticus. ¹⁸ Indicus. ¹⁹ ficus.

11. Some Substantives used in the plural.

The renowned wedding¹. The nightly² watch³. Uncertain⁴ riches⁵. Hidden⁶ treachery⁷. The new calendar⁸. The holy⁹ bible¹⁰. Demolished¹¹ Jerusalem¹². Renowned Delphos¹³. High walls¹⁴. A great¹⁵ camp¹⁶. My house¹⁷. These entrails¹⁸. Egyptian¹⁹ darkness²⁰.

¹ nuptiae. ² nocturnus. ³ excubiae. ⁴ incertus. ⁵ divitiae. ⁶ occultus.
⁷ insidiae. ⁸ fasti. ⁹ sacer. ¹⁰ litterae. ¹¹ dirutus. ¹² Hierosolyma,
-orum. ¹³ Delphi. ¹⁴ moenia, -ium. ¹⁵ ingens. ¹⁶ castra, -orum. ¹⁷ ae-
des, -ium. ¹⁸ exta, -orum. ¹⁹ Egyptius. ²⁰ tenetrae.

AGREEMENT OF THE SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

12. A subject, predicate and copula are necessary for the formation of a sentence which expresses an idea.

The subject is a *person* or *thing*, or in general, that of which something is said; e. g. I, thou, the father, we, ye, the parents, life, death, etc.

The predicate is that which is affirmed of some subject; e. g. Active, teacher, sleeping, industrious, scholars, etc.

The copula, i. e. that which binds together, is the word which unites the subject and predicate. The most usual word for this is the verb *to be*.

These three words together form a sentence; e. g. I am active; thou art a teacher; the father is sleeping; we are industrious; ye are scholars; the parents are good.

13. The subject is not only a substantive, an adjective used as a substantive (e. g. the sweet, the bitter, the future), and a pronoun, but also an infinitive, and a whole sentence; e. g. *to die* (i. e. death) is our lot; *to die for one's country* (i. e. death for one's country) is glorious; *that we all die* (the death of us all) is certain; *when we die* (the time of our death) is uncertain. When a whole sentence is the subject, as in the last two cases, it is called a *periphrastic subject*.

14. The predicate is either a substantive, an adjective, or a participle; e. g. I am a man ; thou art active ; the mother is mourning.

15. The predicate is connected with the subject chiefly by the verb *to be*, as the previous examples show, and a sentence is first formed by means of this connection, as without it, the two words would stand separate ; e. g. I — man ; thou — active.

But the copula is very often expressed in the predicate, i. e. the predicate contains both the predicate and the copula. This is the case with such verbs as have a complete idea in themselves, and are not mere auxiliary verbs ; e. g. *I teach*, is the same as *I am a teacher* ; *I desire*, as *I am desirous* ; *I conquer*, as *I am a conqueror*.

Hence, a simple sentence generally consists of but two words, a subject and a predicate-copula, which is usually called simply the predicate ; e. g. The father sleeps ; I sing ; thou writest ; we labor ; ye sing ; the parents eat.

16. When the predicate is an adjective or a participle, it must agree with its subject in gender, number and case. The subject *pater* requires the predicate *bonus* ; *mater* the predicate *bona* ; *consilium* the predicate *bonum*. So also, *patres* — *boni* ; *matres* — *bonae* ; *consilia* — *bona* ; *sol* — *lucidus* ; *soles* — *lucidi* ; *stella* — *lucida* ; *stellae* — *lucidae* ; *sidus* — *lucidum* ; *sidera* — *lucida*.

If the predicate is a substantive, it can be either a *personal* substantive (e. g. king, companion), or a substantive denoting a *thing* (e. g. cause, book). The former must be in the same number and gender as its subject, the latter is unchanged in both. On this see more under § 62.

Further : not only the copulative verb *esse*, but also the predicate verbs (e. g. *amare*, *to love*, *canere*, *to sing*, etc.), have particular forms for the different persons of the subject, in the singular as well as in the plural ; therefore, the person of the subject must determine the person of the verb ;

e. g. *I am*, ego sum; *thou art*, tu es; *the father is*, pater est; *we are*, nos sumus; *ye are*, vos estis.

When the subject is singular in English, but plural in Latin, then the verb must agree with the subject in number also; e. g. *The house burns*, aedes ardent; *a house is built*, aedes sunt extuctae.

When by the pronouns, I, thou, we, ye, they, females are denoted, the predicate is in the feminine gender. Hence, ego *beata sum*; nos *beatae sumus*; tu *benevola es*; vos *benevolas estis*.

17. Examples for practice.

(These are all to be written in the plural also.)

(1) I am in good health¹. Thou art attentive². The girl³ is attentive. The ice⁴ is cold⁵. The mind⁶ is sound¹. The fish⁷ is great. The river⁸ is broad⁹. The gift¹⁰ is great. The winter¹¹ is severe¹². The sun¹³ is bright¹⁴. The part¹⁵ is small. The horn¹⁶ is curved¹⁷. The month¹⁸ is past¹⁹. The body²⁰ is weak²¹. The law²² is good. The shore²³ is low²⁴. The head²⁵ is great and broad.

¹ sanus (in good health). ² attentus. ³ puella. ⁴ glacies. ⁵ frigidus.
⁶ mens. ⁷ piscis. ⁸ fluvius (flumen, amnis). ⁹ latus. ¹⁰ munus (donum).
¹¹ hiems. ¹² saevus. ¹³ sol. ¹⁴ lucidus. ¹⁵ pars. ¹⁶ cornu. ¹⁷ curvus.
¹⁸ mensis. ¹⁹ praeteritus. ²⁰ corpus. ²¹ caducus. ²² lex. ²³ littus. ²⁴ humili. ²⁵ caput.

(2) The leaf¹ is narrow². The tail³ is long. The race⁴ is different⁵. Strong⁶ is the breast⁷, small is the head, and great the neck⁸. The night is long and the day is short⁹. The honey¹⁰ is sweet¹¹. The sea¹² is deep¹³. The tree is high. The mountain is steep¹⁴. The ship¹⁵ is long and broad. The time¹⁶ is good. The occasion¹⁷ is convenient¹⁸. The wish¹⁹ is heard²⁰. The journey²¹ is wearisome²². Not every²³ wound²⁴ is curable²⁵. The judgment²⁶ is different.

¹ folium. ² angustus. ³ cauda. ⁴ genus. ⁵ diversus. ⁶ robustus. ⁷ pectus. ⁸ collum. ⁹ brevis. ¹⁰ mel. ¹¹ dulcis. ¹² mare. ¹³ profundus. ¹⁴ arduus. ¹⁵ navis. ¹⁶ tempus. ¹⁷ occasio. ¹⁸ commodus. ¹⁹ optatum. ²⁰ ex-auditus. ²¹ iter. ²² molestus. ²³ omnis. ²⁴ vulnus. ²⁵ sanabilis. ²⁶ judicium.

(3) Long is the day, short is the night. Wonderful¹ is the team². Wealth³ is great. The camp⁴ is pitched⁵. The wall⁶ is demolished⁷. The calendar⁸ is old⁹. The guard¹⁰ is attentive. The wedding¹¹ is small. The treachery¹² is

apparent¹³. Jerusalem¹⁴ is now¹⁵ small. The birds fly¹⁶. The fish swim¹⁷. We sleep¹⁸. Ye run¹⁹. The lion²⁰ roare²¹. The lions roar. The friend²² despairs²³. The friends despair. Thou art near²⁴. Ye are near. The tree blossoms²⁵. The trees blossom. We travel²⁶. The swallows²⁷ travel. We dispute²⁸. The masters²⁹ dispute. The boy³⁰ weeps³¹. The boys weep. Virtue and knowledge³² are the most certain³³ riches. Cicero and Demosthenes are illustrious³⁴ orators³⁵. Virgil³⁶ and Horace³⁷ are two³⁸ great poets³⁹.

¹ mirus. ² somnium. ³ dicitiae. ⁴ castra. ⁵ positus. ⁶ moenia. ⁷ di-
rūtus. ⁸ fasti. ⁹ vetustus. ¹⁰ excubiae. ¹¹ nuptiae. ¹² insidiae. ¹³ aper-
tus. ¹⁴ Hierosolyma (plural). ¹⁵ nunc. ¹⁶ volare. ¹⁷ natare. ¹⁸ dormire.
¹⁹ currere. ²⁰ leo. ²¹ rugire. ²² amicus. ²³ despărăte. ²⁴ instare (to be
near) ²⁵ florere. ²⁶ migrare. ²⁷ hirundo. ²⁸ disputare. ²⁹ magister.
³⁰ puer. ³¹ lacrimare. ³² doctrina. ³³ certissimus. ³⁴ clarus. ³⁵ orator.
³⁶ Virgilius. ³⁷ Horatius. ³⁸ duo, ae, o. ³⁹ poëta.

CASES OF DECLINABLE NOUNS.

18. A substantive or pronoun can be used in a sentence as the subject or predicate, and consequently is the principal word of the sentence, e. g. *The friend* is kind, thou art my *friend*; but in other sentences it can be considered only as a subordinate word, which, however, stands in a nearer or more remote connection with the principal word of the sentence; e. g.

Thou hast read the letter *of the friend*.

Thou bringest a letter *to the friend*.

He visits *the friend* constantly.

Friend! let us go into the garden.

In no one of these four sentences is the substantive *friend*, the principal word or the subject; but it stands, in each instance, in connection with the subject, yet it occupies only a subordinate place in the sentence. The sense, which in each instance is different, has made the construction different; as, *of the friend*, *to the friend*, *the friend* and *friend*. This is more perceptible in the Latin, where it is written *amici*, *amico*, *amicum*, *amice*.

For the purpose of distinguishing the principal and subor-

dinate relation of a substantive or pronoun, these words have peculiar endings, which are called *cases*. As therefore such an ending is called *case*, these relations themselves have also been called *cases*.

These cases sometimes *govern* other cases, and sometimes *they are governed*.

While in English the same relations are expressed, as in Latin, yet these relations are not indicated as in Latin, by the different endings of the word ; e. g. to a man, of a man, for a man,—the endings being the same. See § 542. Remark.

THE NOMINATIVE CASE.

19. The nominative case is sometimes used as a subject, sometimes as a predicate. The former is called the *subject-nominative*; the latter, the *predicate-nominative*. As subject-nominative, it names the person or thing of which something is said, it is independent of any word, and governs the verb ; e. g. the father loves you. As predicate-nominative, it belongs to a verb, which of itself does not fully express the necessary thought. Such verbs are, *to be* (*esse*), *to appear* (*existēre*, *apparēre*), *to become* (*fieri*, *evadēre*), *to seem* (*vidēri*), *to be called* (*appellāri*, *vocari*, *nominari*, *dici*), etc.

Examples.

My father is a rich¹ man. Cicero was a great orator. Great will be thy reward². Many appear worthy of admiration³. Dionysius appeared cruel⁴. Bad actions⁵ often become quickly⁶ known⁷. Some⁸ boys⁹ become good, others bad¹⁰. The wise are called philosophers. This precept¹¹ will always remain true. Cossinius seems to me a good man. Cicero has been called the father of his country. These plants seem to me baneful¹². Stammerers¹³ cannot become¹⁴ great orators.

¹ *dives*. ² *merces*. ³ *admirabilis*. ⁴ *crudelis*. ⁵ *factum*. ⁶ *cito*. ⁷ *aper-tus*. ⁸ *nonnullus*. ⁹ *puer*. ¹⁰ *malus*. ¹¹ *praeceptum*. ¹² *perniciōsus*.
¹³ *balbus*. ¹⁴ *evadēre*.

THE GENITIVE.

20. The genitive case generally depends on some word :

(1) On *substantives*. When one of two substantives is dependent on the other, the dependent one stands in the genitive ; e. g. *oratio Ciceronis*, *the oration of Cicero* ; *laus justitiae*, *the praise of justice* ; *epistola matris*, *the letter of the mother*. In these examples the dependence is indicated in English by the preposition *of*.

(2) On *adjectives* ; e. g. such as *express*, *knowledge*, *remembrance*, *consciousness*, *fulness*, etc. : *peritus moris*, *acquainted with the custom* ; *memor beneficiorum*, *mindful of benefits*.

(3) On *verbs* ; e. g. such as *signify*, *to remember*, *to forget*, *to accuse* : *Patriae suae meminisse* (*reminisci*, *recordari*), *to remember his country* ; *fratris oblivisci*, *to forget one's brother* ; *furti accusare*, *to accuse of theft*.

(4) On an *adverb of quantity* ; e. g. *Pecuniae satis*, *enough money*.

(5) Also in expressions which describe the *quality* or *nature* of any one ; e. g. *Magni ingenii esse*, *to be (possessed) of great genius*.

Examples.

(1) The long neck of the camel¹. The roaring² of the lion. The sweet³ song⁴ of the nightingale*. The croaking⁵ of frogs⁶. Jewels⁷ of India⁸. The horses of the Arabians⁹ and the Englishmen¹⁰. The skin¹¹ of the black¹² foxes¹³. The justice¹⁴ of Aristides. The beautiful temples¹⁵ of the Greeks¹⁶ and Romans¹⁷. Mercury¹⁸ was the inventor¹⁹ of the lyre²⁰ and of eloquence²¹, the messenger²² of the gods, and the protector²³ of merchants²⁴ and thieves²⁵. Apollo is the guardian²⁶ of the Muses, and the inventor of medicine²⁷. Romulus is the grandson²⁸ of Numitor, and the son of Rhea Silvia. The letters of Cicero and Pliny are excellent²⁹. The singing of nightingales delights³⁰.

¹ camēlus. ² rugitus. ³ jucundus. ⁴ cantus. * luscinia. ⁵ vox. ⁶ rana.
⁷ gemma. ⁸ India. ⁹ Arabs. ¹⁰ Britannus. ¹¹ pellis. ¹² niger. ¹³ vulpes.

¹⁴justitia. ¹⁵templum. ¹⁶Graecus. ¹⁷Romanus. ¹⁸Mercurius. ¹⁹inventor. ²⁰lyra. ²¹eloquentia. ²²nuntius. ²³tutor. ²⁴mercator. ²⁵fur. ²⁶praeses. ²⁷medicina. ²⁸nepos. ²⁹egregius. ³⁰delectare.

(2) A youth¹ bearing marks of age² is a sign³ of early⁴ death⁵. Whoever⁶ forgets⁷ his father and his mother, is an ungrateful⁸ man. Only⁹ a few¹⁰ are acquainted¹¹ with antiquity¹², and with the ancient¹³ authors¹⁴. Many are ignorant¹⁵ of the customs¹⁶ and passions¹⁷ of men. Socrates was accused¹⁸ of impiety¹⁹. Aristides did not remember²⁰ his unjust²¹ banishment²². Croesus had enough gold²³ and silver²⁴. I am conscious²⁵ of no fault²⁶. I remember²⁷ the merit²⁸ of this man. Jugurtha was of a restless²⁹ and sprightly³⁰ disposition³¹. Crassus was unmindful³² of the treaty³³ made³⁴. Piso accused³⁵ Germanicus of luxury³⁶ and haughtiness³⁷.

¹juventus. ²senilis (bearing marks of age). ³signum. ⁴matūrus. ⁵mors. ⁶qui. ⁷oblivisci. ⁸ingratus. ⁹tantum. ¹⁰pauci. ¹¹gnarus. ¹²antiquitas. ¹³antiquus. ¹⁴scriptor. ¹⁵ignarus. ¹⁶mos. ¹⁷animi perturbatio. ¹⁸accusare (perf.). ¹⁹impietas. ²⁰reminisci. ²¹injustus. ²²exilium. ²³aurum. ²⁴argentum. ²⁵conscius. ²⁶culpa. ²⁷recordari. ²⁸meritum. ²⁹impiger. ³⁰acer. ³¹ingenium. ³²immēmor. ³³foedus. ³⁴factus. ³⁵incusare (perf.). ³⁶luxuria. ³⁷superbia.

THE DATIVE.

21. The dative case designates the person or thing, for which anything is designed or done; e. g. Patri mittis librum, *you send a book to your father, or for him*. This case also, is generally governed by some word in the sentence:

(1) By *adjectives*; e. g. such as *signify, like, useful, hurtful, pleasant, etc.*; e. g. *He is like my father, est meo patri similis; this plant is useful for men, haec planta hominibus est utilis.*

(2) By *verbs*; e. g. such as *signify, to obey, to please, to be useful, to be injurious, to serve*; e. g. *We obey the laws, parēmus legibus; this oration pleases all, haec oratio placet omnibus.*

In many instances, where the Latin verb would take the *dative* after it, the English requires the *accusative*; e. g. *Paremus legibus, we obey the laws; placet mihi, it pleases me.*

Examples.

This happened¹ to my father and mother. Envy² stands³ in the way of many men. I am devoted⁴ to this science⁵. Misfortunes⁶ are often useful to us. This image⁷ is like⁸ my sister. Eloquence⁹ is necessary¹⁰ for boys¹¹, and pleasant¹² for old men¹³. Letters¹⁴ are necessary for us. The story seems¹⁵ laughable¹⁶ to you; to others it appears true¹⁷ and credible¹⁸. This virtue is opposite¹⁹ to that vice²⁰. Many sports²¹ are injurious²² to health²³. We obey²⁴ the same²⁵ commands²⁶ and magistrate²⁷. Many men benefit²⁸ neither²⁹ themselves nor others³⁰. This will benefit you, that will injure³¹ us. Many are slaves³² to the passions³³. Answer³⁴ thy sister as quick as possible³⁵.

¹ accidēre (perf.). ² invidia. ³ obetare (to stand in the way of). ⁴ dedi-
tus. ⁵ doctrīna. ⁶ malum. ⁷ imago. ⁸ similis. ⁹ eloquentia. ¹⁰ necessa-
rius. ¹¹ puer. ¹² jucundus. ¹³ senex. ¹⁴ littéra. ¹⁵ vidēri. ¹⁶ ridiculus.
¹⁷ verus. ¹⁸ credibilis. ¹⁹ contrarius. ²⁰ vitium. ²¹ ludus. ²² pernicioſus.
²³ valetudo. ²⁴ parere. ²⁵ idem. ²⁶ imperium. ²⁷ potestas. ²⁸ prodesse.
²⁹ nec—nor nec. ³⁰ alter. ³¹ nocēre. ³² servire. ³³ perturbatio anīmi.
³⁴ respondēre. ³⁵ quam primum (as quick as possible).

THE ACCUSATIVE.

22. The accusative case designates particularly the *object* to which an action is directed; this object may be a person or a thing; e. g. Thou seekest thy father; my father writes a letter. This case also is usually governed by some word of the sentence:

(1) By a *verb*. It is then called the *accusative of the object*. This can be known by the Latin verb admitting the words, *aliquem*, *aliquid*, before it; e. g. *Aliquem amare*, *to love some one*; *aliquid (aliquem) quaerēre*, *to seek something or some one*.

That word, therefore, which can stand instead of the indefinite words, *some one*, *some thing*, is put in the *accusative*; e. g. *amo patrem et matrem*.

Many verbs, besides an accusative, take also the dative; this is the case with all those verbs which contain the idea of doing something for some one, giving something to some one, and the like; e. g. *Alicui aliquid dare*, *to give*

something to some one; alicui aliquid legere, to read something to some one; Deus nobis vitam dedit, God has given us life.

(2) By a preposition. See § 25—27.

(3) The accusative stands in Latin as in English, in answer to the questions, How high? How long? How broad? How thick? How far? How old? e. g. *This animal is one foot long, hoc animal unum pedem longum est; this boy is two years old, hic puer duos annos est natus; he rests no part of the night, nullum partem noctis requiescit; he was restless the whole day, totum diem non quietus fuit.*

Examples.

(1) All good men love equity¹. The inhabitants² of Egypt³ worship⁴ the Apis, a black⁵ ox⁶. Dogs produce⁷ their young⁸ blind⁹. The return¹⁰ of the stork¹¹ announces¹² the spring¹³. Archelaus gave¹⁴ to Euripides a golden goblet¹⁵. I hate¹⁶ proud¹⁷, wicked¹⁸ and ungrateful¹⁹ men. We do not see²⁰ all the stars²¹. Augustus consecrated²² a temple²³ to Jupiter. Caesar exercised²⁴ his soldiers²⁵. My brother has chosen²⁶ the best²⁷ way²⁸. I recommend²⁹ my friend³⁰ to you. Thou hast sent³¹ to me the letter of my mother. Sicily has had³² many and cruel³³ tyrants³⁴. Nature has given to men understanding³⁵ and speech³⁶. Nature has prescribed³⁷ certain³⁸ laws³⁹ to diseases⁴⁰. Too great⁴¹ familiarity⁴² produces⁴³ contempt⁴⁴. Camillus conquered⁴⁵ the Gauls⁴⁶; Alexander the Great, the Persians⁴⁷; and the Romans, all other⁴⁸ nations⁴⁹. We endure⁵⁰ patiently⁵¹ these pains⁵². I prefer⁵³ friendship to riches⁵⁴.

¹ *aequitas.* ² *incöla.* ³ *Aegyptus.* ⁴ *colere.* ⁵ *niger.* ⁶ *bos.* ⁷ *parere.* ⁸ *catulus.* ⁹ *caecus.* ¹⁰ *reditus.* ¹¹ *ciconia.* ¹² *nuntiare.* ¹³ *ver.* ¹⁴ *donare* (perf.). ¹⁵ *scyphus.* ¹⁶ *odisse.* ¹⁷ *superbus.* ¹⁸ *maleficus.* ¹⁹ *ingratus.* ²⁰ *cernere.* ²¹ *stella.* ²² *consecrare* (perf.). ²³ *aedes.* ²⁴ *exercere.* ²⁵ *miles.* ²⁶ *eligere.* ²⁷ *optimus.* ²⁸ *via.* ²⁹ *commendare.* ³⁰ *amicus.* ³¹ *mittere.* ³² *habere.* ³³ *saevus.* ³⁴ *tyrannus.* ³⁵ *ratio.* ³⁶ *oratio.* ³⁷ *ponere.* ³⁸ *quidam.* ³⁹ *lex.* ⁴⁰ *morbis.* ⁴¹ *nimius* (too great). ⁴² *familiaritas.* ⁴³ *parere.* ⁴⁴ *contemptus.* ⁴⁵ *vincere.* ⁴⁶ *Gallus.* ⁴⁷ *Persa.* ⁴⁸ *ceterus.* ⁴⁹ *gens.* ⁵⁰ *tolerare.* ⁵¹ *patienter.* ⁵² *dolor.* ⁵³ *anteponere.* ⁵⁴ *divitiae.*

(2) A linnet¹ lives² twelve³ years⁴. The lava⁵ of Aetna is often thirty miles⁶ wide⁷. Some⁸ animals sleep⁹ the whole¹⁰

winter¹¹. An adult¹² man is usually¹³ three¹⁴ cubitus¹⁵ high¹⁶. Gorgias lived a hundred and seven years. This city is distant¹⁷ from¹⁸ ours¹⁹ two miles.

¹ linaria. ² vivere. ³ duoden. ⁴ annos. ⁵ lava. ⁶ millia. ⁷ latas. ⁸ nonnullus. ⁹ dormire. ¹⁰ totus. ¹¹ hiems. ¹² adulatas. ¹³ fere. ¹⁴ terci. ¹⁵ cubitus. ¹⁶ longus. ¹⁷ abesse (to be distant). ¹⁸a. ¹⁹moster.

THE VOCATIVE.

23. The vocative case is used in addressing or calling to a person, or a thing considered as a person; e. g. *Let us depart, dear brother, abeamus, care frater; friend, from whence do you come? a mice, unde venis?*

This case is not governed by any word, but is independent of all words standing before and after it.

Examples.

Read! Cicero often, dear friend. I commend² to you, my dearest³, this youth⁴. Thy life⁵, my Plancus, grieves⁶ me. Thou hast, Pomponius, a wonderful⁷ memory⁸. Give⁹, great friend, this letter to Atticus. I free¹⁰ you, O man, best¹¹ and most dear¹² to me, from¹³ all¹⁴ fear¹⁵. Fear¹⁶ nothing¹⁷, most beloved¹⁸.

¹ legere. ² commendare. ³ carissimus. ⁴ adolescens. ⁵ vita. ⁶ sollicitare. ⁷ mirus. ⁸ memoria. ⁹ dare. ¹⁰ libерare. ¹¹ optimus. ¹² amicissimus. ¹³ ab. ¹⁴ omnis. ¹⁵ timor. ¹⁶ timere. ¹⁷ nihil. ¹⁸ suavissimus.

THE ABLATIVE.

24. The ablative case is governed by adjectives, prepositions or verbs; it also stands independent of the other words of the sentence. The adjectives and verbs which govern the ablative, will be mentioned in the second Part of this book.

When it stands independent of any word in the sentence, it expresses chiefly the *instrument by which*, or the *time when* anything happens; e. g. *We see with our eyes, videmus oculis; by virtue we are happy, virtute sumus beati; I saw him the very first day, jam primo die eum vidi.* Such an independent ablative must almost always be translated into English by a preposition. The other instances in which the

abative is used, will be considered at length in the second Part.

This case is chiefly governed by prepositions.

Examples, in which the preposition is always omitted, and the substantive put in the ablative.

Attus cut¹ a hone² with a razor³. The earth is clothed⁴ with flowers, herbs⁵, trees and fruits⁶. The clouds are supplied⁷ by the vapors⁸ of the earth and sea. The sun fills⁹ the whole¹⁰ world with its¹¹ light¹². The trunks¹³ are covered¹⁴ with a softer¹⁵ or¹⁶ harder bark¹⁷. The sun very much exceeds¹⁸ the earth in size¹⁹. The flight²⁰ of birds is facilitated²¹ by wings²², as if²³ by oars²⁴. The Nile²⁵ irrigates²⁶ Egypt²⁷ the whole¹⁰ summer, and covers* it²⁸ with a rich²⁹ slime³⁰. We can, with our³¹ minds³², as if²³ with eyes, view³³ the whole earth and sea. Tarquin was exhausted³⁴ by old age³⁵ and grief³⁶.

¹ discindēre (perf.). ² cos. ³ novacula. ⁴ vestitus. ⁵ herba. ⁶ fruges.
⁷ alère. ⁸ vapor. ⁹ complēre. ¹⁰ totus. ¹¹ suus. ¹² lux. ¹³ truncus. ¹⁴ obductus. ¹⁵ liber (softer bark). ¹⁶ aut. ¹⁷ cortex (harder bark). ¹⁸ praestare. ¹⁹ magnitudo. ²⁰ volatus. ²¹ levare. ²² penna. ²³ tanquam. ²⁴ remus. ²⁵ Nilus. ²⁶ irrigare. ²⁷ Aegyptus. * obducēre. ²⁸ is, ea, id. ²⁹ fertilis. ³⁰ limus. ³¹ (our is omitted in Latin, comp. § 104). ³² animus. ³³ lustrare. ³⁴ conficēre. ³⁵ senium. ³⁶ aegritudo.

CONNECTION OF PREPOSITIONS WITH CASES.

25. Prepositions govern only two cases, the accusative and abative. Some govern only the accusative, others only the abative, and again others both cases, yet with a change of meaning.

(1) The following govern the *accusative* alone: Ad, adversus (adversum), ante, apud, circa (circum), cis, citra, contra, erga, extra, infra, inter, intra, juxta, ob, penes, per, pone, post, praeter, prope, propter, secundum, supra, trans, ultra, versus. Respecting *versus*, see § 28.

26. (2) The following, the *ablative* alone: A, ab, abs, coram, cum, de, e, ex, prae, pro, sine, tenus, palam. Respecting *cum* and *tenus*, see § 28, (2).

Abegue is omitted, being an unclassical word, and but rarely used.

27. The following, the *accusative* and *ablative*: *In*, *sub*, *subter*, *super*. These, however, govern one or the other case, according to their different signification.

Clam is omitted, being used by writers before and after the classical period.

Remarks.

(1) *In* takes the accusative, when it indicates *motion into something, towards something*; therefore it is used in answer to the question, *whither?* e. g. *Into that house*, in illa domum. *In* takes the ablative, when it expresses the *being actually in or upon a place*; therefore it is used in answer to the question, *where?* e. g. *In that house*, in illa domo.

(2) *Sub* governs the accusative and ablative with precisely the same difference of signification as *in*; it has the accusative when motion under something is signified; therefore it is used in reference to the question, *whither?* e. g. *Ire sub terram, to go under the earth*. It takes the ablative, when the *being actually under something* is expressed; therefore it is used in reference to the question, *where?* e. g. *Sub terra, under the earth*, i. e. to be under.

(3) *Subter* usually takes the accusative only, in reference to the two questions, *whither?* and *where?* e. g. *Under the bed*, subter lectum. It takes the ablative but seldom, and then in the poets. It is also frequently used as an adverb.

(4) *Super* takes the accusative when it signifies *above* or *over*, and the ablative when it signifies *on account of*, or *in regard to*; e. g. *He ran over the water*, (i. e. along the surface), *cucurrit super aquam*; *a contention on account of this embassy*, *controversia super hac legatione*. On the other hand, when *above* signifies a being above something, it can take either the accusative or ablative; e. g. *Super lunam*, and *luna*. With numerals, *super* signifies *more than*, e. g. *super tres modios, more than three bushels*.

28. *Some additional remarks.* (1) The preposition *cum*

is almost always placed after the ablatives, *me*, *te*, *se*, *nobis* and *vobis*. With the ablatives of *qui*, *quae*, *quod*, it can stand before and after; e. g. *Mecum*, *with me*; *quocum* and *cum quo*, *with whom*; *quibuscum* and *cum quibus*. Elsewhere the preposition stands first; e. g. *cum Deo*.

(2) The prepositions *versus* and *tenus*, in like manner must always stand after their cases; e. g. *Towards the south*, *meridiem versus*; *as far as the ocean*, *oceano tenus*.

Tenus governs the genitive also, especially of cities or of the members of the body, of which there are pairs; e. g. *Cum arum tenus*, Cicero; *Crurum tenus*, Virg.; *laterum tenus*. But the Gen. with this preposition is confined almost wholly to poetry and to words in the plural. Where it takes the accusative, the reading may be considered doubtful. *Tenus* is very rare in good prose.

29. (3) The prepositions *a* and *e* never stand before a word which begins with a vowel or an *h*. Then *ab* and *ex* are used, though these, especially *ex*, can also stand before almost all consonants; e. g. *Ab eo*, not *a eo*, *ab hoc*, not *a hoc*; further, *ab Jove*, *ab se*, *ex aqua*, not *e aqua*, *ex humo*, not *e humo*; further, *ex meis*, *ex te*, *ex se*.

Examples upon the Prepositions.

(1) Between¹ us and them there is a small disagreement². After³ our death we leave⁴ this earth. Many never⁵ come back⁶ to their⁷ country. On⁸ the boundless⁹ sea, we behold only¹⁰ water and sky. There is a God in us. Asia lies¹¹ towards¹² the east¹³. After³ death we go out from¹⁴ these bonds¹⁵ of the body. Africa lies beyond¹⁶ the Mediterranean¹⁷ sea. Socrates discoursed¹⁸, in his prison¹⁹, of the immortality²⁰ of the soul²¹. Cicero was murdered²² by Popilius Laenas. Around²³ the poles²⁴ of the earth is thick²⁵ ice²⁶. It is not becoming²⁷ to laugh²⁸ in the presence²⁹ of an honorable³⁰ man. The animal concealed³¹ itself, contrary to³² its nature, in the earth. After death we are without³³ sensation³⁴. Alexander spoke³⁵ in the workshop³⁶ of Apelles concerning his pictures³⁷; but³⁸ he was blamed³⁹ by the artist⁴⁰. Cicero is esteemed⁴¹ before⁴² all other writers⁴³. The same⁴⁴ wrote⁴⁵ a book on friendship⁴⁶ and old-age⁴⁷.

¹ inter. ²dissensio. ³post. ⁴relinquere. ⁵nunquam. ⁶redire (to come back). ⁷suis. ⁸in. ⁹immensus. ¹⁰tantum. ¹¹situs esse. ¹²versus. ¹³oriens. ¹⁴exire (to go out from). ¹⁵vinculum. ¹⁶ultra. ¹⁷Mediterraneus. ¹⁸disserrare (perf.). ¹⁹cancer. ²⁰immortalitas. ²¹animus. ²²interficere (perf.). ²³circa. ²⁴polus. ²⁵densus. ²⁶glacies. ²⁷decors. ²⁸ridere. ²⁹coram (in the presence of). ³⁰honoratus. ³¹occultare (perf.). ³²contra. ³³sine. ³⁴sensus. ³⁵dicere (perf.). ³⁶officina. ³⁷pictura. ³⁸sed. ³⁹reprehendere (perf.). ⁴⁰artifex. ⁴¹aestimare. ⁴²prae. ⁴³scriptor. ⁴⁴idem. ⁴⁵scribere. ⁴⁶amicitia. ⁴⁷senectus.

(2) I predicted¹ this before² the unfortunate³ battle⁴. The cocks⁵ crow⁶ before day-break⁷. We do⁸ nothing against the will⁹ of our parents. Without¹⁰ speech¹¹, man is a mute¹² animal¹³. Jupiter gave a sign¹⁴ by¹⁵ fowls¹⁶. The rivers¹⁷ flow¹⁸ into the sea. Hannibal sent¹⁹ ambassadors²⁰ to²¹ the Roman²² Senate. The world was created²³ by God. We tell the children²⁴ concerning God, by whom the whole world is preserved²⁵. At²⁶ Himera was (perf.) an unsuccessful battle. The earth is enlightened²⁷ by the sun. What²⁸ has he said²⁹ to you of the sun? Beneath³⁰ the clear³¹ ether³² the clouds³³ float³⁴. Pyrrhus fought³⁵ against³⁶ the Romans. There is a quarrel³⁷ between³⁸ these philosophers³⁹. In many children hope shines forth⁴⁰. I would rather⁴¹ live with you, than⁴² with another⁴³. We travel⁴⁴ into⁴⁵ Italy. The Germans⁴⁶ dwell⁴⁷ beyond⁴⁸ the Rhine⁴⁹. This way is dangerous⁵⁰ on account of⁵¹ the narrowness⁵². The Romans occupied⁵³ Egypt⁵⁴ as far as⁵⁵ Ethiopia. God created the birds for⁵⁶ flying⁵⁶, horses for running⁵⁷, and wild beasts⁵⁸ for cruelty⁵⁹. Beneath⁶⁰ the moon, there is nothing except⁶¹ what is mortal⁶² and perishable⁶³; but⁶⁴ above⁶⁵ it, all is eternal⁶⁶. I was educated⁶⁷ with you under⁶⁸ the same teacher. Of these writers we cannot judge⁶⁹. We walk about⁷⁰ among these poplars⁷¹ on⁷² the green⁷³ and shady⁷⁴ bank⁷⁵. Among⁷⁶ so many⁷⁷ species⁷⁸, no creature except⁷⁹ man, has a knowledge⁸⁰ of God. Thou wilt live here⁸¹ with thy friends⁸² and with us. Cicero's life was spent⁸³ in praiseworthy⁸⁴ labors⁸⁵.

¹praedicere. ²ante. ³infelix. ⁴pugna. ⁵gallus. ⁶canere. ⁷lux.
⁸facere. ⁹voluntas. ¹⁰sine. ¹¹oratio. ¹²mutus. ¹³animal. ¹⁴signum.
¹⁵per. ¹⁶gallina. ¹⁷flumen. ¹⁸fluere. ¹⁹mittere (perf.). ²⁰legatus.
²¹ad. ²²Romanus. ²³creare. ²⁴puer. ²⁵conservare. ²⁶apud. ²⁷illustrare.
²⁸quid. ²⁹dicere. ³⁰sub. ³¹serenus. ³²aether. ³³nubes. ³⁴pendere.
³⁵pugnare (perf.). ³⁶adversus. ³⁷controversia. ³⁸inter. ³⁹philosophus.
⁴⁰elucere. ⁴¹malle (would rather). ⁴²quam. ⁴³alius. ⁴⁴migrare.
⁴⁵in. ⁴⁶Germanus. ⁴⁷habitare. ⁴⁸ultra. ⁴⁹Rhenus. ⁵⁰periculosis.
⁵¹ob. ⁵²angustiae. ⁵³occupare (perf.). ⁵⁴Aegyptus. ⁵⁵tenus
(as far as). ⁵⁶ad. ⁵⁷volatus. ⁵⁸cursus. ⁵⁹fera (wild beast). ⁶⁰saevitia.

⁶⁰infra. ⁶¹nisi. ⁶²mortale (what is mortal). ⁶³caducum ⁶⁴sed. ⁶⁵super. ⁶⁶aeternus. ⁶⁷educare. ⁶⁸sub. ⁶⁹judicare. ⁷⁰ambulare (to walk about). ⁷¹populus. ⁷²in. ⁷³viridis. ⁷⁴opacus. ⁷⁵ripa. ⁷⁶ex. ⁷⁷tot (so many). ⁷⁸genus. ⁷⁹praeter. ⁸⁰notitia. ⁸¹hic. ⁸²tuus (thy friends). ⁸³consumere. ⁸⁴gloriosus. ⁸⁵labor.

30. From what has been said of the cases, it is evident, that the student must early accustom himself to find out the word by which any case is governed. He should also learn what cases particular words may or must govern.

The different cases which the governing words require, will be treated in the second Part of this book.

ADJECTIVES.

31. Adjectives express quality in various relations. When this quality can be conceived of as greater or smaller, it admits of two degrees, a higher and a highest; e. g. *attentive*, *more attentive*, *most attentive*. These two degrees are the *Comparative* and the *Superlative*.

32. (1) *The Comparative.*

With the comparative, the word *than* and the expression connected with it, is either expressed or understood; e. g. *Thou art wiser than many others*; *this poet is more learned*—. In both of these examples the quality expressed by the adjective, is in the comparative. In the last some such phrase as, *than this man*, or *than that man*, or *than the others*, is understood.

Very often the force of the Latin comparative may be given by the English words, *too*, or *very*; e. g. *serius venit, he came very late*, or *too late*, i. e. *later than he ought*.

The formation of the comparative by means of the ending *ior* or *magis* placed before the positive, should be learned from the grammar before the following examples are translated.

Examples for practice.

Nothing seems¹ to man more beautiful than man. No beast² is more intelligent³ than the elephant. What is better or more excellent⁴ than goodness⁵ and beneficence⁶. Nothing is more lovely⁷ than virtue. Nothing has greater strength⁸ and power⁹ than God¹⁰. Things of nature are bet-

ter than things of art. The younger¹¹ nightingales imitate¹² the older¹³. The price¹⁴ of nightingales has sometimes¹⁵ been greater than the price of slaves. What affinity¹⁶ is nearer¹⁷ or more certain¹⁸. The upright¹⁹ man is more happy²⁰ than the rich one, and enjoys²¹ greater pleasure. A foolish²² man is an unhappy²³ man. Nothing is greater, nothing is more blissful²⁴, nothing is more pleasant²⁵ than friendship. You are more timorous²⁶ than we. The sense of sight²⁷ is more important²⁸ and necessary²⁹, than the sense of smell³⁰. No one was more liberal³¹ and beneficent³² than the emperor Titus. I have not seen worse men. The Consuls had less³³ power³⁴ than the Dictators.

¹ vidēri. ² bellūa. ³ prudens. ⁴ praestans. ⁵ bonitas. ⁶ beneficentia.
⁷ amabilis. ⁸ vis. ⁹ potestas. ¹⁰ Deus. ¹¹ juvēnis. ¹² imitari. ¹³ senex.
¹⁴ pretium. ¹⁵ interdum. ¹⁶ cognatio. ¹⁷ prope. ¹⁸ certus. ¹⁹ bonus.
²⁰ beatus. ²¹ percipere. ²² stultus. ²³ miser. ²⁴ uber. ²⁵ jucundus.
²⁶ timidus. ²⁷ visus. ²⁸ magnus. ²⁹ necessarius. ³⁰ odoratus. ³¹ liberalis.
³² beneficus. ³³ parvus. ³⁴ potestas.

33. (2) Superlative.

The Superlative represents a particular quality in the highest degree.

The formation of the superlative by means of the endings *rimus*, *issimus* and *limus*, or by means of *maxime* placed before the positive, should be learned from the grammar before the following examples are translated.

Examples for practice.

Demosthenes is the most illustrious¹ orator² of antiquity³. Nero was (perf.) the most cruel⁴ emperor⁵ of the Romans. The most trusty⁶ animal is the dog. The shortest⁷ time of life is often the most miserable⁸. The wisest and most prudent man is sometimes⁹ deceived¹⁰. The swiftest¹¹ animal is the dolphin¹². Lucullus possessed¹³ (perf.) a most splendid¹⁴ country-seat¹⁵. The most useful¹⁶ limbs¹⁷ of man are the hands. The ape¹⁸ is the animal most like¹⁹ man. The smallest trees are in the northern²⁰ regions²¹. The army²² of Xerxes was (perf.) the greatest. These grapes²³ are the sweetest²⁴. My dream²⁵ was (perf.) the most wonderful²⁶. The death of Codrus was the most glorious²⁷. Pleasure is not the highest²⁸ good. This garden is the nearest²⁹. Rome

was the most populous³⁰ city. Titus was (perf.) the most beneficent³¹ emperor. The earth holds³² the lowest³³ place³⁴. This poem³⁵ is most elegant³⁶. My brother has selected³⁷ the worst³⁸ flowers. I have procured³⁹ only the most necessary⁴⁰ books. The richest⁴¹ Romans were Lucullus and Crassus. These mountains are the lowest⁴², and these shores⁴³ the steepest⁴⁴. The greatest good is friendship, for the most⁴⁵ pleasures⁴⁶ are in friendship.

¹clarus. ²orator. ³antiquitas. ⁴crudelis. ⁵imperator. ⁶fidelis.
⁷brevis. ⁸miser. ⁹interdum. ¹⁰decipere. ¹¹celer. ¹²delphinus.
¹³possidere. ¹⁴magnificus. ¹⁵villa. ¹⁶utilis. ¹⁷membrum. ¹⁸simia.
¹⁹similis. ²⁰septentrionalis. ²¹regio. ²²exercitus. ²³uva. ²⁴dulcis.
²⁵somnium. ²⁶mirus. ²⁷gloriosus. ²⁸superus. ²⁹prope. ³⁰celaber.
³¹beneficus. ³²obtinere. ³³inferus. ³⁴locus. ³⁵carmen. ³⁶eliegans.
³⁷eligere. ³⁸malus. ³⁹comparare. ⁴⁰necessarius. ⁴¹dives. ⁴²humilius. ⁴³litus. ⁴⁴arduus. ⁴⁵multus. ⁴⁶delectatio.

34. The Latins sometimes use the neuter plural of an adjective, where the singular would be used in English; e. g. *mine, mea*; *utilia, that which is useful*, or *those things which are useful*; *omnia, everything*; *plura, more*. The connection must determine whether one thing or more is meant.

When these neutrals are the subject of a proposition, the verb must be in the plural; e. g. *Everything is, omnia sunt*.

When, moreover, an adjective stands without a substantive, and refers to men, it is put in the masculine; e. g. *The poor, pauperes; the mortals, mortales*.

Examples for practice.

The rich and the poor, the high¹ and the low² are subject³ to death. The future⁴ is not known. What is dishonorable⁵, is to be avoided⁶. What is praiseworthy⁷, is to be sought⁸. The past⁹, the present¹⁰ and the future are very¹¹ different¹². Truth and falsehood are not the same¹³. Mine is also thine. That which is weak¹⁴ and fragile¹⁵, is mortal¹⁶. Some¹⁷ of¹⁸ what he said, is wicked¹⁹ and base²⁰. Every²¹ animal²² perceives²³ the warm²⁴ and the cold²⁵, the sweet²⁶ and the bitter²⁷. Hear²⁸ much and speak²⁹ little³⁰.

¹nobilis. ²ignobilis. ³obnoxius. ⁴futurus. ⁵turpis (what is dishonorable). ⁶effugiendus. ⁷laudabilis. ⁸expetendus. ⁹praeteritus. ¹⁰praesens. ¹¹admödum. ¹²diversus. ¹³idem. ¹⁴caducus (that which

is weak). ¹⁵fragilis. ¹⁶mortalis. ¹⁷quidam. ¹⁸ex. ¹⁹flagitiosus. ²⁰foe-dus. ²¹omnis. ²²animal. ²³sentire. ²⁴calidus. ²⁵frigidus. ²⁶dulcis. ²⁷amarus. ²⁸audire. ²⁹loqui. ³⁰pauci, ae, a.

35. *Remark.* The Latins often use the word *res* also, making the adjective agree with it, instead of using the adjective alone in the neuter; e. g. *mine, mea res*; *useful things, or what is useful, utilis res*, instead of *utilia*; *he speaks of these things, loquitur de his rebus; on this account, hac de re, eam ob rem*, etc. On the other hand, the word *things, etc.* is sometimes not expressed in Latin; e. g. *boys do boyish things, pueri puerilia tractant; these three points are the most important, haec tria sunt maxima.*

36. Lastly, when the adjective stands as predicate of an infinitive or of a whole sentence, it is always in the neuter, because an infinitive or a whole sentence is considered as neuter. In English such a subject may stand either before or after the verb. In the last instance, we supply the word *it*; e. g. *To practice virtue is honorable, or it is honorable to practice virtue, virtutem exercere est honestum.*

Examples for practice.

To do injustice¹ to others is base². It is right³ to repel⁴ passion⁵. It is dishonorable⁶ to praise⁷ one's self. To speak prudently⁸ and briefly⁹ is always better than to speak imprudently¹⁰ and eloquently¹¹. It is sweet and honorable¹² to die¹³ for¹⁴ our* country. It is necessary to have faithful friends. It is useful and just¹⁵ to do good¹⁶ to men. To learn much is beneficial¹⁷ to you and others. It is proper¹⁸ to know¹⁹ one's* faults²⁰.

¹injuria. ²turpis. ³rectus. ⁴repellere. ⁵iracundia. ⁶deformis. ⁷praedicare. ⁸prudenter. ⁹breviter. ¹⁰imprudenter. ¹¹diserte. ¹²decorus. ¹³mori. ¹⁴pro. * omitted in Lat. ¹⁵honestus. ¹⁶benefacere. ¹⁷salutaris. ¹⁸bellus. ¹⁹nosse. ²⁰vitium.

Remark. But when the word *it* with an adjective refers to a preceding substantive, then the adjective is in the same gender as that substantive; e. g. *Whose book is it? It is mine, Cujus est liber? Est meus. Is this house great? No, it is small, Estne haec domus magna? Immo, est parva.*

PRONOUNS.

37. Most pronouns are of such a nature, that they relate to substantives. But here two cases occur:

(a) If they stand in the same clause with the substantives, they are to be considered as adjectives, and must agree with the substantive in gender, number and case; e. g. *I have seen this man (hunc hominem)*. *What man (quem hominem) hast thou seen?* *I have seen these men (hos homines)*. *Thou dost please this man (huic homini)*.

(b) If the substantive to which the pronoun refers stands in a preceding clause, the pronoun can agree only in gender and number with its substantive, but not always in case, because that depends on the nature of the sentence in which the pronoun stands; e. g. *The youth (quem adolescentem) you recommended to me, he (is) is agreeable to me.* *The youth (adolescens) whom (quem) you recommended to me, is agreeable to me.* *Your oration (tua oratio) which (quam) I have read, pleases me.* *Thy friend came to me; I said much to him (huic).*

Examples for practice.

Cicero said this in those books which you have read¹. Pliny had (perf.) two country-seats², the one³ he called⁴ Tragedy⁵, the other⁶ Comedy⁷. Among⁸ those animals which live with us, the dog is the most faithful⁹. Memory¹⁰ is necessary for the orator¹¹,— and this is especially¹² strengthened¹³ by exercise¹⁴. Show¹⁵ me the book which you praised¹⁶ to me. The syllable¹⁷ which we protract¹⁸, is long. The hope¹⁹ which we cherish²⁰, is often deceptive²¹. All men whom we consider happy²², are not happy. All²³ the food²⁴ which the hungry²⁵ take²⁶, satisfies²⁷ them²⁸. Virtue does not value²⁹ highly³⁰ the pleasure which she has approved³¹.

¹ legere. ² villa. ³ ille. ⁴ nominare. ⁵ tragoeadia. ⁶ hic. ⁷ comoedia. ⁸ ex. ⁹ fidus. ¹⁰ memoria. ¹¹ orator. ¹² praecipue. ¹³ confirmare. ¹⁴ exercitatio. ¹⁵ monstrare. ¹⁶ praedicare. ¹⁷ syllaba. ¹⁸ producere. ¹⁹ spes. ²⁰ fovere. ²¹ vanus. ²² beatus. ²³ omnis. ²⁴ cibus. ²⁵ esuriens. ²⁶ occupare. ²⁷ satiare. ²⁸ is, ea, id. ²⁹ aestimare. ³⁰ magni. ³¹ probare.

THE VERB.

38. The verb, next to the subject, is the principal word in a sentence, because it either unites the subject and predicate

with each other, or, by denoting the existence of some property or quality, it contains the predicate in itself. There is no sentence without a verb; although sometimes, for the sake of brevity, the verb is omitted, yet it must be understood.

The verb is, both as to its definition and form, so comprehensive, that it is of the first importance for beginners to make themselves thoroughly acquainted with it.

39. (1) *The Persons of the Verb.*

The verb has different endings for the different persons, both in the singular and plural.

When a subject, of whatever person it may be, has two or more verbs connected with it, then the subject is expressed with the first only, and is not repeated with the following verbs; e. g. I read and (I) write; we read and (we) write. In the Latin, these several verbs, because they refer to the same person, must have the same personal form; e. g. lego et scribo; legimus et scribimus, etc. *I have read and written, legi et scripsi; I shall read and write, legam et scribam, etc.* This is true, also, when the verbs are in different tenses, provided the person remains the same; e. g. *I have always esteemed you, and always shall esteem you, te semper dilexi, ac semper diligam.*

Examples for practice.

I arm¹ and equip² the legions. We write back³ to you immediately⁴ and send the book which you wish⁵. I shall write to you as soon as possible⁶ and tell⁷ you all the news⁸. We have told you the whole⁹ case¹⁰, and explained¹¹ our meaning. Thy letter pleased¹² me and truly¹³ cheered¹⁴ me. We shall soon¹⁵ come to you and congratulate¹⁶ you. We study¹⁷ and hunt¹⁸ at our country-seat¹⁹, and sometimes²⁰ do both²¹ together²². All which we have heard and seen, has happened to us.

¹ armare. ² parare. ³ rescribere. ⁴ statim. ⁵ optare. ⁶ quam primum • (as soon as possible). ⁷ nuntiare. ⁸ nova res. ⁹ omnis. ¹⁰ res. ¹¹ exponere. ¹² delectare. ¹³ vere. ¹⁴ exhilarare. ¹⁵ mox. ¹⁶ gratulari. ¹⁷ litteris operam dare. ¹⁸ venari. ¹⁹ villa. ²⁰ interdum. ²¹ uterque. ²² simul.

40. (2) *Number.*

The number of the verb corresponds with the number of the subject. Hence if the subject is singular in English, but plural in Latin, the verb also must be in the plural; e. g. *Wealth is uncertain*, *divitiae sunt incertae*. See § 34 above. It is not usual to find the subject plural in English, when it is singular in Latin. The word *both*, however, which is plural, is frequently expressed by the Latin *uterque*, which is singular. *How few* or *how many*, is expressed by *quotus-quisque*.

Examples.

Both¹ are absent. Both have left² me. Both laugh³. Both weep⁴. How few understand⁵ this?

¹ *uterque*. ² *relinquere*. ³ *ridere*. ⁴ *flere*. ⁵ *intelligere*.

41. (3) *Different classes of Verbs.*

The beginner should early learn the difference between the *transitive*, *intransitive*, *passive* and *deponent* verbs.

A *transitive* verb expresses an action which the subject performs upon itself or upon another object. The subject is therefore considered as active, and is occupied with itself or some other object; e. g. I love myself, I love my father, I love my books, teach the scholars, paint a horse, eat bread, etc. Here the verb always takes an accusative after it as its object.

42. An *intransitive* or *neuter* verb expresses only the condition of a subject, often indeed an active condition, but one in which there is no object on which the action is performed; e. g. I run, I dance, I spring, etc. Here the verb is followed by no accusative.

A *passive* verb denotes that something either good or bad is done to the subject. Hence, the subject is not active itself, although sometimes it can be regarded as in a state of motion; e. g. I am loved by my father; I am instructed by

my teacher—*am bitten* by the dog—*am carried away* by the storm; history *is learned*; the action *will be investigated*.

Every passive verb comes from a transitive one, and every sentence with a transitive verb and an accusative belonging to it, can be changed into a passive sentence; e. g.

My father teaches me,
I am taught by my father.
The storm prostrates the trees,
The trees are prostrated by the storm.

The subject of an active sentence becomes only a subordinate word in a passive sentence, and is denoted by the preposition *by*; on the other hand, the object which stands in the accusative, in the active sentence, becomes the subject-nominative, in the passive.

The *deponent* verb is only a secondary form of the transitive or intransitive, since it has the passive form *or*, instead of the active *o*, but in signification, it is either transitive or intransitive; e. g. *I accompany you*, te comitor; *I exhort my friend*, amicum exhortor; *I arise*, orior; *I advance*, proficiscor.

Examples for practice.

We shall praise others, and we are also¹ praised by others. Thou wilt praise² this youth. Thou art praised by all men. Cicero will defend³ him. Cicero is defended by him. The messenger will bring⁴ a letter to me. A letter is brought to me. We are not surpassed⁵ by animals. We will deceive⁶ those by whom we are deceived. Thou wilt love, esteem⁷ and honor⁸ this man. Thou art loved, esteemed and honored by all. I have come into the city. I have been praised by you. You had scarcely come hither⁹, when you were invited¹⁰. We have fallen¹¹ upon the camp¹². Hannibal had fled¹³ to Antiochus. We have met¹⁴ with many evils¹⁵. What men have you escaped¹⁶? No one has appeared¹⁷ today. Thy friends have remained¹⁸ in the city. Our actions¹⁹ have been extolled²⁰ or undervalued²¹. My parents returned²² to the city yesterday.

¹ quoque. ² praedicare. ³ defendere. ⁴ reddere. ⁵ superare. ⁶ de-
cipere. ⁷ suspicere. ⁸ ornare. ⁹ huc. ¹⁰ invitare. ¹¹ invadere (to fall
upon). ¹² castra. ¹³ confugere. ¹⁴ incidere (to meet with). ¹⁵ malum.
¹⁶ effugere. ¹⁷ apparere. ¹⁸ remanere. ¹⁹ factum. ²⁰ tollere. ²¹ deprimere.
²² redire.

43. It will be a very useful exercise for the beginner to change active into passive sentences, and passive into active; for almost every active sentence, which has an accusative governed by the verb, can be changed into a passive sentence, by making the object which stands in the accusative, the subject, and by subjoining to the passive the previous subject by the preposition *by*; e. g. *Alexander conquers Darius — Darius is conquered by Alexander*. Let the following examples be expressed both actively and passively.

Examples for practice.

I love you. Thou lovest me. The father loves the son. The son loves the father. The parents love the children. The children love the parents. Ye love us. We love you. A good man loves equity¹. We do not see all the stars. Caesar exercised² the soldiers. My brother has chosen³ the best way. We bear⁴ the pains. Archelaus gave (perf.) a golden goblet⁵ to Euripides. Augustus dedicated⁶ a temple to Jupiter. Nature has given reason⁷ to man. I prefer⁸ friendship to riches. Others prefer riches to friendship. We prefer the soul to the body. Camillus conquered⁹ the Gauls¹⁰.

¹ aequitas. ² exercere. ³ eligere. ⁴ tolerare. ⁵ scyphus. ⁶ con-
secrare. ⁷ ratio. ⁸ anteponere. ⁹ vincere. ¹⁰ Gallus.

44. (4) *Tenses.*

The tenses of the Latin, in the principal sentences, correspond for the most part with those of the English, except in the use of the imperfect. On the contrary, when the thought is expressed indefinitely in the subjunctive, or in connection with conjunctions, there are many differences, because the English does not express an action so precisely as the Latin. These differences will be pointed out in the second Part of this book. Here only a part of the usage of the *imperfect* will be spoken of.

45. The English imperfect has two significations :

(1) It is used for the purpose of expressing a condition or state continuing in past time. In this sense the imperfect is used in Latin also ; e. g. *While I was sitting at my ease, my brother was reading*, dum ego otiosus s e d e b a m, frater meus l e g e b a t.

(2) The imperfect is used in English to describe an action simply as past. Here the Latin imperfect is never used, but the perfect ; e. g. *Alexander died in Babylon*, mortuus est. *Alexander conquered (vicit) Darius*. *Alexander was killed (interfactus est) by his wife*. In these last three examples, the actions are described as simply past,—in English by the imperfect, in Latin by the perfect.

But the Latin imperfect is often used to express *habitual* or *customary past action*, in which sense the English imperfect* is rarely found ; e. g. *Socrates was accustomed to think the same*, Socrates idem censebat. *When Alexander went into his bed-chamber, he was wont to command (jubebat)* a slave to go before with a sword, i. e. he commanded it as often as he went.

Examples for practice.

Phalaris did not perish¹ by² treachery³, but the whole⁴ multitude⁵ of Agrigentines made an attack⁶ upon him. The Macedonians⁷ went⁸ to Pyrrhus. The wars of the Romans were carried on⁹, either for their allies¹⁰, or for the sake of¹¹ power¹². The Roman magistrates¹³ sought for¹⁴ the most worthy praise. The Roman armies¹⁵ and generals yielded¹⁶ to Viriathus. Socrates discoursed¹⁷ in prison on the immortality of the soul. Mummius demolished¹⁸ Corinth. Scipio destroyed¹⁹ Carthage. The Lacedemonians banished²⁰ Ly-sander from the city. Romulus and Remus built²¹ Rome. Romulus was the first king of the city, Rome. The same killed²² his brother Remus. Two commanders²³ were appointed²⁴ against Hannibal and two armies¹⁵ sent²⁵.

* Although the English imperfect may sometimes be used to express customary action, yet that idea is usually expressed by, *he was accustomed, wont, he always, etc.*

¹ interire. ² ex. ³ insidiae. ⁴ universus. ⁵ multitudo. ⁶ impetus.
⁷ Macédo. ⁸ se conferre. ⁹ gerere. ¹⁰ socius. ¹¹ de (for the sake of).
¹² imperium. ¹³ magistratus. ¹⁴ appetere. ¹⁵ exercitus. ¹⁶ cedere. ¹⁷ disserere. ¹⁸ evertare. ¹⁹ delere. ²⁰ expellere. ²¹ condere. ²² necare. ²³ imperator. ²⁴ creare. ²⁵ mittere.

46. (5) Modes.

The indicative is used in all principal sentences, when something is affirmed and said of the subject with definiteness and certainty; e. g. *This is laborious*, *hoc est laboriosum*; *this man abounds in every virtue*, *abundat*; *I shall be greatly indebted to you*, *maximam tibi gratiam habeo*.

But the indicative is used also in introductory and subordinate sentences after some conjunctions, when in like manner something is said with definiteness and certainty. Such are, *quia*, because; *quoniam*, since or because; *etsi* and *quanquam*, although; *postquam*, afterwards; *ubi*, when; *ut*, as or when; *quando*, when; *si*, if; *nisi*, unless; *simulac*, *simulatque*, as soon as; *quod*, because that; e. g. *As I believe*, *ut arbitor*; *because you think*, *quia putatis*; *although you know*, *etsi (quanquam) scitis*; *after I heard*, *postquam audivi*; *when the day dawned*, *ubi illuxit dies*; *when I see*, *quando video*; *if this is true*, *si hoc verum est*; *as soon as he saw me*, *simulac me vidit*; *you do well*, *that you do not doubt*, *bene facis, quod non dubitas*.

47. The subjunctive is used in the principal sentence, only when something is said of the subject without definiteness and certainty. In English the potential mode is generally used, and sometimes the imperative; e. g. *Let each one exercise himself diligently*, *se quisque studiose exerceat*; *I would come to you, if I had time*, *venirem ad te, si mihi otium esset*; *who can believe this?* *quis hoc credat?* *let us believe*, *credamus*.

48. The subjunctive stands, moreover, in introductory and independent sentences:

(1) In *narration*, in which the words and thought of another are not stated directly in his own language, but in an

indirect narrative form. Then none of the conjunctions mentioned above take the indicative, but the subjunctive, which is expressed in English by the indicative; e. g. *quod cuique privatim opus est* becomes in narration, *quod—sit*; and *si nunc non sumus* becomes *si—sint*. *Because it was necessary*, *quia opus esset*; *as you had asked*, *ut exegisses*; *although you were sick*, *etsi aegrotares*. Hence the subjunctive is used also in dependent and indirect questions; e. g. *He asked me where I was going* (direct question, *where are you going?*), *me interrogavit quo tendetrem*; *I do not know, whether he makes verses*, *nescio*, an *faciāt* versus.

49. (2) The subjunctive stands after some conjunctions, although the sentence itself contains nothing uncertain or indefinite. These conjunctions are :

1. *Ut*, in the sense of, *that*, *so that*, *in order that*, *to*; e. g. *I pray you, that you would defend me*, or *to defend me*, *ut me defendas*.

2. *Quo*, in the sense of, *in order that*, and with *minus* following it, *that not*, *from*; e. g. *In order that the cucumber may be more tender, the seeds are soaked in milk*, *cucūmis quo tenerior existat*. *Nothing will prevent me from accomplishing this*, *quo minus hoc exēquar*.

3. *Ne*, in the sense of, *that not*, *lest*, *from*; e. g. *He has advised us that we should not be (not to be) too liberal*, *ne nimis liberales simus*.

4. *Quin*, in the sense of, *that not*, *but that*, *who or which not*, *that*; e. g. *I doubt not that virtue makes us happy*, *quin virtus nos beatos faciat*.

5. *Utinam*, *O that, would that*; *utinam ne*, *O that not*; e. g. *Utinam scias*, *O that you knew*.

6. *Licet*, *though, although*; e. g. *Although I am wretched*, *licet miser sim*.

7. *Velut* and *quasi*, *just as if, as if*; e. g. *As if thy honor were at stake*, *quasi tuus honos agatur*.

8. *Quamvis, however, however much*; e. g. *However wretched you are, quamvis miser sis.*

The subjunctive is also used in the phrases, non (*nihil*) est, quod, *there is no reason, that*, and quid est, quod, *why is it that, or why?* e. g. *There is no reason, that you should fear my coming, quod adventum meum extimescas.* *Why do you hasten? quid est, quod festinētis?*

Examples for practice.

So narrate the matter, that* the narration¹ may be probable². Who does not know³, that⁴ Miltiades conquered⁵ the Persians, at Marathon? I will mention⁶ my own, that I may not speak of the misfortunes⁷ of the state⁸. I earnestly⁹ pray you to¹⁰ do this. However¹¹ rich you are, you are not therefore happy. There is no reason¹² that we should hasten¹³. Nothing deters¹⁴ me from¹⁵ being always prepared¹⁶. The winter has hitherto¹⁷ prevented¹⁸ us from¹⁹ knowing²⁰ what you were doing. The gods can make me announce²¹ such things²² to you often, (Lat. can make that I should announce). If that which thou doest is honorable²³, let all know it. Why²⁴ dost thou not write to me? Let us read this book. Although²⁵ many dangers²⁶ threaten²⁷ me, yet I am safe²⁸. Many cities have so disappeared²⁹, that* no trace³⁰ is now³¹ seen³². I could not be prevented³³ from³⁴ declaring³⁵ my affection to you. Entreat³⁶ him to¹⁰ be silent³⁷. We are often influenced³⁸ to¹⁰ be good men by some³⁹ advantage.

* ut. ¹ narratio. ² verisimilis. ³ ignorare (not to know). ⁴ quin. ⁵ vincere. ⁶ commemorare. ⁷ incommodum. ⁸ civitas. ⁹ vehementer. ¹⁰ ut. ¹¹ quamvis. ¹² non est, quod (there is no reason that). ¹³ festinare (present). ¹⁴ deterrere. ¹⁵ quo minus. ¹⁶ paratus. ¹⁷ adhuc. ¹⁸ prohibere. ¹⁹ quo minus. ²⁰ certum habere. ²¹ nuntiare (See § 541). ²² talia. ²³ honestus. ²⁴ quid est, quod. ²⁵ licet. ²⁶ periculum. ²⁷ imminere. ²⁸ securus. ²⁹ evanescere. ³⁰ vestigium. ³¹ jam. ³² apparere. ³³ tenere. ³⁴ quin. ³⁵ declarare. ³⁶ exorare. ³⁷ silere. ³⁸ movere. ³⁹ aliquis.

50. The imperative mode entreats, commands, forbids and prohibits. When it is used to forbid, the English word *not*, must be expressed by *ne*, and be placed before the verb, and, if a following sentence is connected by *and not, neither, nor*, these must be expressed by *neve*; e. g. *Trust him, crede ei; trust him not, ne ei crede; you should help your bro-*

ther, and not desert him, fratri tuo subvenito neve deserito.

Examples for practice.

Take away¹ this difficulty² from me. Do not bury³ a dead person⁴ in the city, nor burn⁵ him. Calm⁶ your passion as soon as possible⁷. Deliver⁸ me from this torment⁹. Do not demand¹⁰ too much¹¹. Farewell¹², and love me and write to me soon.

¹ eximere. ² scrupulus. ³ sepelire. ⁴ mortius. ⁵ cremare. ⁶ restinguere. ⁷ quam primum (as soon as possible). ⁸ eripere. ⁹ tormentum. ¹⁰ postulare. ¹¹ nimium (too much). ¹² valere.

51. (6) *The Infinitive with its Gerunds.*

The infinitive is used as a substantive, and therefore is considered either as a nominative or as an accusative. As nominative, it is the subject of a sentence; e. g. *To praise everything is foolish, omnia laudare est ridiculum*; as accusative, it is the object of a sentence, and as such is used with very many words which do not express a complete idea of themselves, but require other verbs after them. Such are, *velle, nolle, malle, cupere, posse, debere, solere, coepisse, incipere, statuere, constituere, decernere, desinere*, etc.; e. g. *Many prefer to serve rather than fight, multi servire malunt, quam pugnare; we are wont to say, soleamus dicere; I wish to hear you, te audire cupio.* Here the subjoined infinitives are the object-accusative of the verbs with which they are connected.

52. The genitive of the gerund is translated into English by a present participle, a participial noun, or the infinitive; e. g. *The art of loving, ars amandi; desirous of drinking, cupidus bibendi; an opportunity was given of burying, or to bury the slain, sepeliendi caesos potestas facta est.*

The dative of gerunds is used to denote the purpose for which something serves or is adapted; e. g. *He gives him legs fit for swimming, apta natando crura dat; you devote all your time to learning, discendo.*

The accusative with the ending *andum* or *endum* is governed by the prepositions *ad* and *inter*, which may usually be rendered by *to*, *for the purpose of*, and *while*; e. g. *My mind inclines me to write, ad scribendum; he came in order to see or to see, venit ad videndum; while writing, the thought occurs to me, inter scribendum.*

The ablative stands sometimes alone, and may be usually rendered by the preposition *by*; sometimes it is governed by the prepositions *in* and *a*; e. g. *You effect nothing by weeping, flendo nihil proficis; you cannot prevent him from writing, a scribendo eum retinere non potes.*

Examples for practice.

Thou knowest¹ the art of writing. It is difficult² to correct³ this. By contradicting⁴ we make enemies⁵ to ourselves. He comes to me daily⁶ in order to read, to write and to hear⁷. I devote⁸ my time to⁹ reading and writing. Many are accustomed to sleep by day¹⁰ and to watch¹¹ by night¹². I have resolved¹³ to go¹⁴ and see¹⁵ you. The spring and autumn are the best seasons of the year¹⁶ for ploughing¹⁷. We are desirous of reading this oration¹⁸, and we venture¹⁹ to ask²⁰ you to²¹ give it to us. Rhetoric²² is the art of speaking²³ well; but the orator knows²⁴ how²⁵ to speak well.

¹ novisse. ² difficilis. ³ corrigēre. ⁴ adversari. ⁵ inimicus. ⁶ quotidie. ⁷ audire. ⁸ impendere. ⁹ (in the dative). ¹⁰ diu. ¹¹ vigilare. ¹² noctu. ¹³ capere consilium. ¹⁴ proficiisci. ¹⁵ visere. ¹⁶ anni tempus (season of the year). ¹⁷ arare. ¹⁸ oratio. ¹⁹ conari. ²⁰ exorare. ²¹ ut. ²² rhetorice. ²³ dicere. ²⁴ scire. ²⁵ (omitted in Lat.).

53. The two supines have a different signification. The first with the ending *um*, which is active, is often used with verbs of motion, for the purpose of expressing the design of the action; e. g. *I go to Italy for the purpose of seeing, or to see the ancient monuments, vetēra monumenta visum.* The second with the ending *u*, which is passive, stands with some adjectives, for the purpose of showing *in what respect*, the adjective belongs to its substantive; e. g. *This monument is worthy of being seen or to be seen, hoc monumentum visum est dignum.*

Examples for practice.

In eulogies¹, the virtues are the most agreeable² to be heard. Caesar came³ quickly⁴ with the whole army⁵ to besiege⁶ Alesia. This mountain is difficult to be ascended⁷. Tatta descended⁸ from⁹ the hill¹⁰ for the purpose of obtaining¹¹ water.

¹ laudatio. ² jucundus. ³ venire. ⁴ cito. ⁵ exercitus. ⁶ oppugnare.
⁷ ascendere. ⁸ descendere. ⁹ de. ¹⁰ collis. ¹¹ petere.

54. (7) *Participles.*

The participles are very important in writing Latin. These, however, are reserved for the second Part and only the verbal adjective in *endus* and *andus*, as connected with the verb *esse*, will be treated here.

When the verbal adjective, e. g. *amandus*, *diligendus*, is united with the verb *esse*, it can stand only in the nominative with the verb, except where the infinitive is used. Then the verbal adjective refers either to some declinable word, which is considered as its subject, or to a whole sentence, which is also its subject. Properly, sentences which contain the verbal adjective must be considered as passive; but we can also express them actively, by placing the indefinite words *one* or *we* before them; e. g. *Virtue must be honored*, can be expressed, *one must honor virtue*, *virtus est colenda*; *one (we) must honor the virtues*, *virtutes sunt colenda*; *one (we) must respect the king*, *rex suspiciendus est*; *one (we) must honor the kings*, *reges suspiciendi sunt*; *one (we) ought to pray* (*it ought to be prayed*) *that a sound mind may be given to us*, *orandum est*. And so through the remaining tenses and modes. The above examples may be translated with the words *one* or *we*.

But when in the place of the indefinite *one* or *we*, a definite person is used, the Latin puts that person in the dative,—which in English is better translated actively, as the nominative; e. g. *There must be honoring by me*, i. e. *I must honor*, *mihī colendum est*; *it must be honored by us*, i. e.

we must honor, nōbis colendum est. Therefore, *I must read this book*, is expressed by, *mīhi hic liber legendus est; thou must read these books, tibi hi libri legendi sunt; we must honor our parents, nobis parentes colendi sunt.*

Examples for practice.

One must always keep¹ the fidelity² of an oath³. We must explain⁴ the nature⁵ of justice⁶. Thou must confirm⁷ thy health⁸. One must prefer⁹ many things to pleasure (Lat. many things must, etc.). We must sometimes¹⁰ fight with the hand and prefer death to slavery¹¹ and disgrace¹², (Lat. it must sometimes be fought, and death must be, etc.). Every man ought to avoid¹³ the suspicion¹⁴ of boasting¹⁵. One must not hearken¹⁶ to all men (Lat. all men must, etc.). The vine-dresser¹⁷ must break off¹⁸ the highest¹⁹ shoots²⁰ of the trees and²¹ preserve²² only one or two. We must form²³ new words²⁴ and give²⁵ new names to things.

¹ servare. ² fides. ³ jusjurandum. ⁴ explicare. ⁵ natūra. ⁶ jus. ⁷ firmare. ⁸ yaletūdo. ⁹ anteponēre. ¹⁰ nonnunquam. ¹¹ servitus. ¹² turpitudo. ¹³ vitare. ¹⁴ suspicio. ¹⁵ ostentatio. ¹⁶ audire. ¹⁷ vinitor. ¹⁸ defringere. ¹⁹ summus. ²⁰ flagellum. ²¹ nec nisi (and only). ²² servare. ²³ parere. ²⁴ verbum. ²⁵ imponēre.

THE POSITION OF SOME WORDS.

55. Many words in Latin have their definite position. Some always stand first in the sentence, others after one or two words of a sentence; others again have a more indefinite position according to the signification they have in the sentence.

(1) *Nam, etenim, at, sed, verum, sin, and qui* with all the phrases belonging to it, as *qua re, qua de re*, etc., stand only at the beginning of the sentence; e. g. *For I deny this, nam hoc nego; but this is nothing, at hoc nihil est; but it rarely happens, verum raro evēnit; if this happens, quod si evēnit; quae quum vera sint.*

56. (2) *Enim, vero, autem, quoque, que and quidem*, do not stand at the beginning of a sentence, but after one or more words. The last three, *quoque, que* and *quidem*, stand

after the words to which they refer; e. g. *hoc enim nego, hoc vero est nihil.* *This also pleases me, hoc quoque mihi placet;* *this pleases me also, hoc mihi quoque placet;* *pater mater que, boni malique.* *This is great indeed, hoc magnum quidem est;* *this indeed is great, hoc quidem magnum est.*

57. (3) The particle *non* never stands after the word to which it belongs but before it. When there are two verbs, one depending on the other, then *non* stands before the leading verb, unless the infinitive is to be contrasted with something following; e. g. *I do not write, non scribo.* *Fraus non dissolvit perjurium;* *epistola non est scripta or scripta non est;* *eum amare non possum;* *non est ita or non ita est (not est non ita, or ita non est);* *non quidem adjicit;* *non omnia possūmus.*

58. (4) *Quisque, quaeque, quidque* (quodque), are placed:

(a) Usually after the reflexive pronouns, *sui, sibi, se* and *suus;* e. g. *Each one loves himself, se quisque amat;* *every people has its own custom, suus cuique populo mos est;*

(b) After the superlative, when it belongs to the pronoun; e. g. *Optimus quisque Ciceronem laudabat;*

(c) After ordinal numbers; e. g. *Every third year he went to Rome, tertio quoque anno Romam migravit.*

59. (5) The verb, for the most part, is placed after those words which are governed by it; e. g. *I gave him two books, ei duos libros dedi;* *I remind the scholars of this one thing, discipulos hoc unum moneo.*

Examples for practice.

But¹ we congratulate² them at least³. The thoughts⁴ themselves also⁵ are apparent⁶. For⁷ in every⁸ art and science⁹ whatever¹⁰ is best, is rarest. Epicurus was not acute¹¹ enough¹². Thou canst not surely¹³ deny¹⁴ this. Every¹⁵ fourth year a day is inserted¹⁶. These things at least (quidem) can be easily distinguished¹⁷. For¹⁸ who willingly¹⁹ undertakes²⁰ any²¹ laborious²² exercise²³ of the

body? Every fifth year the Olympic games²⁴ are celebrated²⁵; but²⁶ the Pythian²⁷, at first²⁸, every ninth year. When²⁹ this had been announced³⁰ to him³¹, he sent³² for him. Each³³ one cares³⁴ more for himself than for others. Wherefore³⁵, let the Stoicks reserve to themselves³⁶ the name of wisdom. Old men also³⁷, hope for long³⁸ life. Every one wishes his work³⁹ praised. God⁴⁰ has given its own nature to every animal⁴¹. Every one truly wise⁴² is exposed⁴³ to the jealousy of evil men. I have lost⁴⁴ nothing; for⁴⁵ all mine is with⁴⁶ me. It is not so, as most have hitherto⁴⁷ believed⁴⁸, and every one has hitherto dreamt⁴⁹. Wherefore⁵⁰, all my hope rests⁵¹ upon⁵² you. Wherefore⁵³, I do not ask you, but the poet himself. How⁵⁴ dost thou explain⁵⁵ the actions⁵⁶ of these⁵⁷ men? As⁵⁸ each one is disposed⁵⁹ towards⁶⁰ himself, so let him be disposed towards his friend. Very many things⁶¹ are indeed true, but not very⁶² credible⁶³. Many praise that which is not to be praised⁶⁴.

¹ verum. ² gratulari. ³ quidem. ⁴ sententia. ⁵ quoque. ⁶ eminēre. ⁷ enim. ⁸ omnis. ⁹ scientia. ¹⁰ quidque. ¹¹ acutus. ¹² satis. ¹³ vere. ¹⁴ negare. ¹⁵ quisque. ¹⁶ intercalare. ¹⁷ distinguere. ¹⁸ enim. ¹⁹ libenter. ²⁰ suscipere. ²¹ ullus. ²² laboriosus. ²³ exercitatio. ²⁴ Olympia (Olympic games). ²⁵ celebrare. ²⁶ vero. ²⁷ Pythia. ²⁸ primo. ²⁹ quum (with subjunctive). ³⁰ nuntiare. ³¹ qui. ³² arcessere (to send for). ³³ quisque. ³⁴ providere. ³⁵ quare. ³⁶ sibi habere (to reserve to themselves). ³⁷ quoque. ³⁸ diuturnus. ³⁹ opus. ⁴⁰ Deus. ⁴¹ animans. ⁴² sapientissimus (truly wise). ⁴³ expositus. ⁴⁴ perdere. ⁴⁵ enim. ⁴⁶ cum. ⁴⁷ adhuc. ⁴⁸ opnari. ⁴⁹ somniare. ⁵⁰ quam ob rem. ⁵¹ esse. ⁵² in. ⁵³ quapropter. ⁵⁴ quemadmodum. ⁵⁵ interpretari. ⁵⁶ factum. ⁵⁷ qui. ⁵⁸ quemadmodum. ⁵⁹ animatus. ⁶⁰ in. ⁶¹ plurima (very many things). ⁶² parum (not very). ⁶³ credibilis. ⁶⁴ laudandus (to be praised).

J. Fischer

P A R T I I.

CONTAINING

THE IDIOMATIC AND THE MORE DIFFICULT USAGE OF THE LATIN LANGUAGE.

(A.) GENERAL REMARKS WITHOUT REFERENCE TO SINGLE CASES.

60. In English, where two or more persons are named, we put the name of the *gens* and the family in the singular number; e. g. Marcus and Quintus *Tullius Cicero*. But in Latin, these family and gentile names are put in the plural, where two or more persons are spoken of; e. g. Marcus et Quintus *Tullii Cicerones*; Cneus et Publius *Scipiones*. But *Quintus pater et filius*, is right, not *Quinti*, as a plural. But where neither the praenomen nor the name of the *gens* is used, the English, also, must have the plural, if more than one person is referred to, e. g. *two Ciceros*, but *Marcus and Quintus Cicero*.

Examples for practice.

The brothers Lucius and Spurius Mummius were inferior¹ orators. There are many orations of Lucius and Caius Aurielius Oresta. Celer and Nepos Metellus were not unlearned men. Daniel and Nicolaus Heinsius, father and son, as well as John Frederic² and Jacob Gronovius, were learned Hollanders³. At that time lived Marcus and Lucius Porcius Cato. These Carbos were three brothers, viz⁴. Caius, Cneus and Marcus Carbo.

¹mediocris. ²Fredericus. ³Batavus. ⁴see § 534.....

AGREEMENT OF THE SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

61. It has been already stated, § 16, that the subject and predicate must be of the same gender, number and case. This is the simplest principle of agreement. Here, therefore, others more difficult will be presented.

(1) In certain English sentences which begin with *that*, this conjunction is omitted in the Latin, and the accusative takes the place of the subject-nominative, but the verb is put in the infinitive. See § 380. If then the verb has a substantive, adjective or participle connected with it, as predicate, this also must be in the accusative, because its subject is in that case; e. g. *I believe, that my father is sick*, credo patrem esse aegrotum—*that my mother is sick*, matrem esse aegrotam—*that my teachers are sick*, magistros esse aegrotos—*that you have been praised*, vos laudatos esse.

Examples for practice.

(In all the following examples the accusative with the infinitive is used.)

I believe, that my antagonist¹ is timid². I believe, that the nature of man is wouderful³. We think⁴, that piety⁵ is the greatest virtue. It is certain, that many men are rude⁶ and hard-hearted⁷. I know, that the Lacedemonians were a brave nation⁸. The Stoicks⁹ say, that the wise man is the most happy. The same think⁴, that the world is, as it were¹⁰, a common¹¹ city, and a state¹² of gods and men, and that every¹³ man is a part of this world. It is certain, that we were born¹⁴ for a natural fellowship¹⁵.

¹adversarius. ²timidus. ³mirus. ⁴censere. ⁵pietas. ⁶asper. ⁷durus. ⁸gens. ⁹Stoicus. ¹⁰quasi (as it were). ¹¹communis. ¹²civitas.
¹³unusquisque. ¹⁴nasci. ¹⁵communitas.

62. (2) The predicate is not always an adjective or a participle; it may also be a substantive, either denoting a person, e. g. *teacher, guide, attendant*, or a substantive denoting a thing, e. g. *cause, source*. When the substantive denotes a thing, it agrees with its subject only in case, not

in gender and number; e. g. *Riches are to many the highest good of life*, divitiae multis sunt summum vitae bonum. But when the substantive denotes a person, it must agree with its subject, not merely in case, but also in gender and number. But these substantives have in Latin, either two distinct forms, one masculine and one feminine, e. g. *rex*, *regina*; *rector*, *rectrix*; *victor*, *victrix*; *pater*, *mater*, etc., or only a single form, which is of the common gender; e. g. *dux*, *comes*, *parens*; hence, *dux fidus*, and *dux fida*; *comes perpetuus*, and *comes perpetua*. But where there are two forms of a substantive, it is always necessary to select the one which is of the same gender as the subject; e. g. *The sun is the king of heaven*, *sol est rex* (*rector*, moderator) *coeli*; *the moon is the queen of the stars*, *luna est regina* (*rectrix*, *moderatrix*) *sid̄erum*; *fear is a poor guard*, *metus est malus custos*; *Athens is the inventress of many arts*, *Athenae sunt inventrices multarum artium*. The following are somewhat different: *Athens was the most honorable seat of wisdom*, *Athenae fuerunt (fuit) honestissimum domicilium sapientiae*; *This youth is my delight*, *hic juvenis est (sunt) meae deliciae*. When the subject is neuter, the predicate substantive is masculine rather than feminine; e. g. *tempus vitae magister est*, not *magistra*.

Examples for practice.

The soul¹ is eternal², and the guide³ of the human race. Money is the source⁴ of many and great pleasures. Virtue is the greatest⁵ good⁶, and vice the greatest evil⁷. The laws are the best defenders⁸ of the citizens. A good conscience⁹ is a safe¹⁰ keeper¹¹ and companion¹² of man. Grief¹³ is a cruel¹⁴ tormentor¹⁵ of the soul. Want¹⁶ is the bitterest¹⁷ enemy¹⁸ of virtue. Fortune¹⁹ is the blind²⁰ mistress²¹ of all things. The memory²² is a treasury²³ of all things, and an excellent²⁴ companion²⁵ of the orator. Let the mind²⁶ be the constant²⁷ judge²⁸ of all things. Praise is the almost constant companion of good actions²⁹. Athens was the teacher³⁰ of eloquence and the poetic art³¹.

¹animus. ²aeternus. ³rector, rectrix. ⁴effector, effectrix. ⁵superus. ⁶bonum. ⁷malum. ⁸patrōnus, patrōna. ⁹conscientia. ¹⁰tutus. ¹¹custos. ¹²comes. ¹³aegritudo. ¹⁴saevus. ¹⁵carnifex. ¹⁶inopia. ¹⁷acer. ¹⁸adversarius, adversaria. ¹⁹fortuna. ²⁰caecus. ²¹dominus, domina. ²²memoria. ²³thesaurus. ²⁴egregius. ²⁵comes. ²⁶mens. ²⁷perpetius. ²⁸judex. ²⁹recte factum (good action). ³⁰magister, magistra. ³¹ars poetica.

63. (3) When a predicate-verb, e. g. *amare*, *scribere*, refers to two or more subjects of the third person singular, two cases occur:

(a) The subject are *living things*.

Here the verb is generally in the plural when it stands after the subjects; e. g. *Homer and Hesiod lived before the building of Rome*, *Homērus et Hesiōdus fuerunt ante Romam conditam*. The singular is used more rarely.

But when the verb stands after the first subject only, then it is naturally only in the singular; e. g. *Homerus fuit et Hesiodus ante Romam conditam*.

Finally, when the verb stands before the first subject, then it is sometimes in the singular, sometimes in the plural. Therefore we can say, *fuit* and *fuerunt* *Homerus et Hesiodus — ; hic nobiscum sunt (est) Nicias et Valerius*.

After the phrase, *Senātus populusque Romānus*, generally the singular only is used by the best writers; e. g. *The Senate and Roman people gave thanks to Cicero*, *Senatus populusque Romanus gratias egit Ciceroni*, not *e gerunt*.

After *aut* or the distributing *et—et*, *aut—aut*, *cum—tum*, *non solum—sed etiam*, etc., the singular is used more than the plural; e. g. *If Socrates or Antisthenes said, si Socrates aut Antisthenes diceret or dicerent; both Socrates and Antisthenes thought the same*, *idem et Soc. et Antisth. censebat* or *censebant*.

(b) The subject are *things without life*.

Here, whenever the subjects of a verb are singular, the verb, for the most part, is singular, seldom plural; e. g. *Reason and truth convince, convincit; the force of justice and the will of the Praetors will avail nothing*, *nihil valebit*.

When the verb stands after or before the first subject, the verb is only in the singular; e. g. *Civility and kindness of*

speech conciliate the feelings, conciliat animos comitas affabilitasque sermonis.

When *aut*, or the distributing *et—et, nec—nec, cum—tum, non solum—sed etiam*, and the like, come between the subjects, then the verb is better in the singular; *Not only our favor, but also our authority, is diminished, et gratia et auctoritas minuitur.*

When a plural subject is connected with a subject in the singular, and the singular subject stands before the verb, the Latins put the verb in the plural, as well as in the singular; e. g. *The bodies themselves and nature contribute much to the health of bodies, multum ipsa corpora et natura valent (valet); me illam causam non solum homines, sed etiam locus ipse lacusque docuit; nunc mihi nihil libri, nihil litterae, nihil doctrina prodest.*

Examples for practice.

In the most ancient times lived Orpheus and Linus. Hunger and thirst are allayed¹ by food and drink². Fannius and Scaevola came to Laelius. Porcius Cato and Valerius Cato together³, held⁴ the consulship and censorship. Not only⁵ favor⁶, but honor is obtained⁷ mostly⁸ by defending⁹. Thus the society and union¹⁰ of men will be best preserved¹¹. Time and necessity demand¹² this. Justice and liberality chiefly effect¹³ this. Critias, Theramenes and Lysias followed¹⁴ Thucydides. After Thucydides, Theopompus and Ephorus devoted themselves¹⁵ to history. Life, death, wealth and poverty, affect¹⁶ all men.

¹ depellere. ² potio. ³ conjunctus. ⁴ gerere. ⁵ et (not only). ⁶ gratia. ⁷ parere. ⁸ maxime. ⁹ defensio. ¹⁰ conjunctio. ¹¹ servare. ¹² postulare. ¹³ efficere. ¹⁴ sequi. ¹⁵ se conferre (to devote themselves). ¹⁶ permovere.

64. (4) When the predicate is an adjective or participle, and relates to two or more subjects, then here also, two cases occur:

(a) The subjects are *living things*.

When the predicate is placed after the first subject, it agrees with that subject in gender and number; e. g. Malcolus a me productus est, et mater ejus atque avia.

But when the predicate is placed after the last subject,

then if the singular is prominent in the mind, the predicate agrees with the last in gender and number; but when the plural is prominent, then, if the subjects be of like gender, the predicate is of the same gender; but if the subjects be of different gender, the masculine is used; e. g. *My father and mother died long ago*, jam pridem pater mihi et mater mortui sunt (*mortua est*).

(b) The subjects are *inanimate objects*.

When the subjects are singular and of the same gender, the singular or plural can follow, in the same gender as the subjects: e. g. *The greatest ardor and desire for carrying on war were natural to him*, huic summa alacritas et cupiditas belli gerendi innata est or innatae sunt.

When the subjects are of the same gender but of a different number, either the singular or plural may be used when the plural subject stands first; but when it is the last, the plural only is used e. g. *Our houses and the country itself were plundered*, domus nostrae et patria ipsa direpta est or direptae sunt; but, patria et domus nostrae direptae sunt.

When the subjects are of different genders, the predicate is either singular and in the same gender as the subject to which it is joined, or plural and in the neuter gender; e. g. *Literary pursuits and their delight are to be preferred to all pleasures*, studiorum et usus et delectatio est omnibus voluptatibus anteponenda or sunt anteponenda.

When all the subjects are plural and of different genders, then the predicate agrees in gender with the noun to which it is joined; e. g. *Ex eo leges moresque constituti sunt* (*mores legesque constitutae sunt*).

Examples for practice.

The virtues and customs of this man are to be praised¹. Your valor and fidelity have been tested² by me. Foolishness³, rashness⁴, injustice and extravagance are to be avoided⁵. Pain, sickness, poverty⁶ and obscurity⁷ have been despised⁸.

by certain⁹ philosophers. Men and women were terrified¹⁰ on account of¹¹ this report. Fields¹², islands and coasts¹³ glitter¹⁴, studded¹⁵ with houses and cities. Beauty, constancy¹⁶ and order, ought to be praised¹⁷. When¹⁸ hunger and thirst are allayed¹⁹ by food and drink, we rejoice²⁰.

¹ laudandus. ² spectatus. ³ stultitia. ⁴ temeritas. ⁵ fugiendus. ⁶ paupertas. ⁷ ignobilitas. ⁸ contemnere. ⁹ quidam. ¹⁰ conturbatus. ¹¹ de (on account of). ¹² ager. ¹³ litus. ¹⁴ collucere. ¹⁵ distinctus. ¹⁶ constans. ¹⁷ praedicandus esse (ought to be praised). ¹⁸ quum. ¹⁹ depellere. ²⁰ laetari.

65. (5) When two or more subjects of a different person, *I* and *thou*, *I* and *he*, *we* and *ye*, *we* and *they*, *ye* and *they*, belong to one verb, and the same thing is affirmed of them, the verb must not only be in the plural, but must be in the person that takes precedence. The first person takes precedence of the second, and the second of the third. The person of the verb is therefore determined according to this rule; e. g. *You and I are brothers*, ego et tu sumus fratres; *thy father and I are cousins*, ego et pater tuus sumus patruelles. *You and your brother owe your life to this man*, tu et frater tuus huic viro vitam debetis. *Neque vos neque sorores vestrae invitati estis.*

Yet this rule holds, only when the same thing is affirmed of the different subjects; for, when this is not the case, the verb agrees with the person, with which one may wish to join it; e. g. *I obtained this place in peace, you in war*, ego hunc locum in pace, nactus sum, tu in bello, or ego hunc locum in pace, tu in bello nactus es.

Examples for practice.

I and my brother value¹ this man on account² of his learning³. Since⁴ this day, I and that man have lived in the same⁵ house. Then⁶ I was in safety⁷, and he was in danger. You and your father have done⁸ many good deeds for the republic⁹. Since that time, I have engaged in¹⁰ the study of grammar, and my brother, in the study of philosophy. Our Cassius and I, will be at your house to-morrow¹¹, as you desire¹².

¹ magni aestimare. ² ob (on account of). ³ doctrina. ⁴ ex. ⁵ idem. ⁶ tum. ⁷ tutum. ⁸ praestare. ⁹ respublica. ¹⁰ tractare (to engage in). ¹¹ cras. ¹² cupere.

APPOSITION.

66. When two substantives, near to each other, denote but one thing, e. g. *The philosopher Socrates*, or *Socrates the philosopher*, *Julius Caesar*, *the greatest commander*, then the substantive, which is annexed to the more important word, is said to qualify it, and to be in apposition with it. This is an abridged expression for, *Socrates who is or was a philosopher*. Every substantive, which defines more definitely another preceding substantive, with and without the word *namely*, is in apposition; e. g. *Despise not all external blessings*, (*namely*) *riches, rank and birth*—where the word *namely* is omitted in Latin. Substantives thus annexed must be in the same case, as those to which they are annexed; e. g. *Ciceroni, magno oratori*; *pro Socrate, homine sapientissimo*.

The gender and number must also be the same, when the noun in apposition is a personal substantive (see § 62); e. g. *Fear, the master of the human mind*, *timor, dominus*; *fortune, the mistress of our life*, *fortuna, domina vitae nostrae*; *Athens, the inventress of many arts*, *Athenae inventrices multarum artium*. But if the substantive in apposition, denotes something inanimate, the gender and number of this substantive need not agree with the other; e. g. *Fear, the cause of much misery*, *timor, causa*; *Athens, the city*, *Athenae, urbs*; *Cicero, my delight*, *Cicero, meae deliciae meique amores*.

The same rule applies, when words or phrases with *as if*, *as, either—or, neither—nor*, explain a preceding substantive; e. g. *Nature has given to man sensations, as if messengers and attendants*, *natura homini sensus, tanquam nuntios ac satellites attribuit*.

There is but one seeming exception to the rule, which requires nouns in apposition to be in the same case, viz. when a noun is put in apposition with the name of a city, which, in answer to the question, *Where?* according to the form, is in the genitive, then the noun

in apposition is put in the ablative with or without *in*; e. g. *At Rome, the chief city of Italy*, Romae, (in) *prima urbe Italiae*.

But since that genitive form to denote the place, where something happens, is probably an old ablative form, the natural case follows in apposition. See § 69.

When another substantive with an explanatory relative (*qui*), follows the substantive with which it would be in apposition, then that other substantive is put in the same case with *qui*; e. g. *he destroyed Corinth, a city, which, delevit Corinthum quae urbs*.

Examples for practice.

Marcellus routed¹ Hannibal, the commander of the Carthaginians at (apud) Nola, a city of Campania. When² Marcellus had taken³ Syracuse⁴, the famous city of Sicily, he ordered⁵ every one to⁶ spare⁷ Archimedes⁸, that famous mathematician. Cupid⁹ was represented¹⁰ near¹¹ Hymenaeus, the god of marriage. Apelles had very often¹² painted Venus, the goddess of love. Dionysius, the elder¹³, had two wives¹⁴, namely, Aristomache, his country-woman¹⁵, and Doris, a Locrean¹⁶. At¹⁷ Capua, a beautiful city of Campania, the soldiers of Hannibal lived luxuriously¹⁸. Milo was in vain¹⁹ defended²⁰ by Cicero, at that time²¹, the most illustrious orator. An eruption²² of Vesuvius destroyed²³ Herculaneum and Pompeii, two cities of Campania. Carthage produced²⁴ Hamilcar and Hannibal, two brave Africans, the latter of²⁵ whom was conquered²⁶ by the Roman commander, Scipio the elder¹³, near Zama, a city of Africa. Conon, having been banished²⁷ from Athens, that most splendid²⁸ city of Greece, went²⁹ to Pharnabazus, the kinsman³⁰ of the king of the Persians. Let industry, the mother of renown and happiness³¹, belong³² to every man. Already has the stork, the messenger³³ of spring, appeared³⁴ again³⁵. Death spares³⁶ no one, neither the rich nor the poor. Fortune³⁷, that mistress³⁸ of human life, rules³⁹ over⁴⁰ us all. Cicero and Marius were born⁴¹ at⁴² Arpinum, a free town⁴³ of Latium. Coriolanus, influenced⁴⁴ by anger, a bad⁴⁵ counsellor⁴⁶, fought⁴⁷ against⁴⁸ his country. Geese, the preservers⁴⁹ of the capitol, were highly⁵⁰ valued at⁵¹ Rome. Popular applause⁵², a rash⁵³ panegyrist⁵⁴ of faults, impairs⁵⁵ the beauty of virtue. Besides⁵⁶ Juno, the queen of Heaven, the sister and wife of Jupiter, the ancients worshipped many other goddesses. There was a contest⁵⁷ concerning⁵⁸ the possession⁵⁹ of the city, Athens*, between two deities, Neptune and Minerva. In every⁶⁰ pure mind dwells⁶¹ modesty⁶², the con-

troller⁶³ of lust. We avoid death, as if⁶⁴ a dissolution⁶⁵ of nature. Many ancient people worshipped the dog and the cat as⁶⁶ gods. Sulla was the teacher⁶⁷ of three pernicious⁶⁸ vices, luxury, avarice and cruelty.

¹ fundēre (perf.). ² quum (with subjunctive). ³ capēre. ⁴ Syracusae.
⁵ edicēre. ⁶ ut. ⁷ parcēre. ⁸ (dative). ⁹ Amor. ¹⁰ pingēre. ¹¹ juxta.
¹² saepius. ¹³ major. ¹⁴ conjux. ¹⁵ civis. ¹⁶ Locrensis. ¹⁷ (the genitive).
¹⁸ luxuriose. ¹⁹ frustra. ²⁰ defendēre. ²¹ tum (at that time). ²² eruptio.
²³ delēre. ²⁴ gignēre. ²⁵ ex. ²⁶ vincēre. ²⁷ expulsus. ²⁸ amplissimus.
²⁹ se conferre. ³⁰ propinquus. ³¹ felicitas. ³² proprius. ³³ nuntius, nuntia. ³⁴ apparēre. ³⁵ rursus. ³⁶ parcēre. ³⁷ fortūna. ³⁸ domīnus, domīna.
³⁹ dominari. ⁴⁰ in. ⁴¹ nasci. ⁴² (the genitive). ⁴³ municipium (a free town). ⁴⁴ ductus. ⁴⁵ malus. ⁴⁶ consultor, consultrix. ⁴⁷ dimicare. ⁴⁸ ad-
versus. ⁴⁹ servator, servatrix. ⁵⁰ magni. ⁵¹ (the genitive). ⁵² fama pop-
ularis (popular applause). ⁵³ temerarius. ⁵⁴ laudator, laudatrix. ⁵⁵ cor-
rumpēre. ⁵⁶ praeter. ⁵⁷ certāmen. ⁵⁸ de. ⁵⁹ possessio. ⁶⁰ Athenae. ⁶⁰ om-
nis. ⁶¹ inesse. ⁶² pudor. ⁶³ moderator, moderatrix. ⁶⁴ quasi (as if).
⁶⁵ dissolutio. ⁶⁶ ut. ⁶⁷ magister. ⁶⁸ pestifer.

USE OF CASES TO DESIGNATE PLACE.

67. A place can be spoken of, either in relation to something which is done *in* it, and then the question is asked by, *where?* or in relation to something which is directed *towards* it, and then the question is asked by, *whither?* or in relation to something which comes *from* it, and then the question is asked by, *whence?* These questions may be distinguished thus: *Where?* *Whither?* *Whence?* For other designations of place, see § 74.

68. *The question, Where?*

(1) With the divisions of the earth, with countries and islands, the preposition *in* with the ablative is used; e. g. *In Europa*; *in Italia*; *in Creta*. *In* is often omitted, but only when *totus* or *omnis* (the whole) agrees with the noun. But if the writer wishes to express, with precision, the idea of the *where*, then also *in* stands before the ablative; e. g. *In the whole of Europe*, *tota Europa*; *tota Graecia*, moreover also, *in tota Eur.*

(2) With the names of cities, villages and small islands, no preposition is used, but the genitive or ablative, according to their difference of declension and number.

The genitive is used, when the word is of the first or second declension, and singular number; e. g. *At* (or *in*) *Rome*, *Romae*; *at* (or *in*) *Corinth*, *Corinthi*. Compare the remarks respecting this genitive under § 69.

The ablative is used, when the word is of the third declension, or plural number; e. g. *At* (or *in*) *Carthage*, *Carthagine*; *at* (or *in*) *Athens*, *Athenis* (from *Athenae*); *at Delphi*, *Delphis*; *at Andes*, *Andibus* (from *Andes*, -ium). The following table shows the different usage.

<i>Genitive.</i>	<i>Ablative.</i>
Declension 1 and 2.	With all others.
Singular number.	

It has already been stated above, § 66, under apposition, that, when the name of a city, island or village, in reference to the question, *where?* is in the genitive, and a noun with an adjective, or another explanatory clause is in apposition with it, this is put in the ablative, with or without *in*; e. g. *At Rome, the capital of the old world*, *Romae*, (*in*) *capite veteris orbis terrarum*. So, *Neapoli*, in *celeberrimo opido*; *Tusculi*, *salubri et propinquo loco*. This is not the case where a single city or village is in apposition; e. g. *In the city Rome*, is expressed only by *in urbe Roma*, not *in urbe Romae*, nor *Romae, urbe*. It can be written *in urbe Romae*, only when *in urbe* is contrasted with *in agro*.

69. (3) The words, *domus* (home), *humus* (ground), *militia* (war), *bellum* (war) and *rus* (country), are constructed in the same manner. Hence, *at home*, is expressed by *domi*; *on the ground*, by *humi*, instead of which sometimes *humo*, as ablative of place; *abroad*, by *militiae* or *belli*; *in the country*, by *ruri*, seldom *rure*. *Militiae* and *belli*, however, are used in this way in prose, only when they are connected with *domi*; because then *domi* signifies *in peace*. Thus, *In peace and war*, *domi militiaeque*, *domi bellique*, *domi et belli*, *domi bellique*, and so also, *vel belli vel domi*.

With the substantive *domi*, an adjective denoting the possessor, or the genitive of the possessor, can be joined; hence, *domi meae* (at my house), *tuae*, *suae*, *nostrae*, *vestrae*, *alienae* (in the house of another), *regiae* (in the house of the king), *domi Caesaris* (in Caesar's house);

and so similar words, when they refer to the possessor, and not to any internal or external quality of the house. Hence, *In a spacious house*, is expressed, not by *amplae domi*, but by *in ampla domo*; *in the royal* (i. e. worthy of a king, splendid) *house*, not by *regalis domi*, but *in regali domo*. But with *totus* (whole), *tota domo*, without *in*.

Although the cases in *ae* and *i*, denoting place, as *Romae*, *militiae*, *domi*, *humi*, *belli*, are called by the usual name of genitive, yet those forms, in these significations, do not indicate the relation of the genitive, but that of the ablative* or dative. As it respects the right use of them, however, the name is not important.

70. (4) With all other names of places, e. g. city, mountain, island, etc. the preposition *in* with the ablative is used; e. g. *In the city*, *in urbe*; *in the island*, *in insula*; *in the mountain*, *in monte*; *in the world*, *in mundo*; *in the forum*, *in foro*; *in coelo*; *in libro*;—in short, in every instance, where the idea of place only is expressed by the preposition; e. g. *In our parents is the greatest piety*, *in parentibus summa pietas*; *in Cicero we feel the want of firmness*, *in Cicerone desideramus constantiam*. But when the name of a person stands only for his works, *apud* is used; e. g. *In Cicero we do not find this*, *apud Ciceronem*.

* The proper ending of the ablative in all declensions is *e*, e. g. *mensa-e* (*mensa*), *horto-e* (*horto*), *color-e*, *fructu-e* (*fructu*), *re-e* (*ré*); but the *e*, especially when the ablative denotes the place *where*, was changed into *i*, e. g. *Romai*, contracted *Romae*, *Tarenti*. Thus this form, in the first and second declension, corresponded with the genitive form. In the third declension the *e* of the ablative remained; yet there are still some traces of the ablative in *i*, e. g. *ruri* (not *rure*), *Lacedaemoni*, *Carthagini* and *e*. In this way, *domi* is formed from *domui*, which is found even in Cicero. But whatever may be the explanation, there can be little doubt that all the forms denoting the place *where* are in the ablative. As all plural nouns of the first and second declension, denoting the place *where*, and all, both singular and plural of the third declension, have regular ablative forms,—and as all such nouns, whatever be their declension and number, take the noun in apposition with them, in the ablative, it is naturally inferred that these words themselves are all ablatives. See Kühner's Lat. Gr. Syntax, § 16, Rem. 4, also Reisig on the Lat. language, § 347 seq.

Here, also, when *totus* and *omnis* are joined to the noun, the preposition *in* is omitted; e. g. *In the whole city*, tota urbe; *in the whole forum*, toto foro; *in the whole camp*, totis castris; *in this whole battle*, hoc toto proelio. Comp. § 68.

In is omitted only with *locus*, place, situation, condition, qualified by an adjective or adjective pronoun, though more seldom when *locus* signifies place; with *status*, position, condition; with *terra*, in the phrase, *by land*; with *mari*, in the phrase, *by sea*; and with *via*, way, when it is definitely named; e. g. *Then our affairs were in a better situation* (condition), *me eliore loco (statu)*; *in this place*, *hoc loco*; *in many places*, *multis locis*; *nothing remains permanently in its own condition*, *suo statu*; *we lose everything by sea and by land*, *terra marique*; *in the Appian way*, *via Appia*; *upon another road*, *alia via*; *on the same way*, *eodem itinere*.

Examples for practice.

(The following detached expressions may be used first.)

In Asia. At Tusculum. At Baiae. In Asia Minor¹. At Capua. In this house. In thy house. At Carthage. At Thebes². In Germany³. In the earth⁴. At Ephesus. In the temple. At Gabii. In the country⁵. In peace and war. In this war. At Troy. In Troas. At Neapolis. At Paris⁶. In Palestine⁷. At Jerusalem⁸. In the water. In the stable⁹. In Cyprus, an island of the Mediterranean sea. At Andes¹⁰. At Philippi. At Verona, a city of upper¹¹ Italy. In Ionia. In the valley¹². In the grove. At our house. At Patāra¹³. In Delos, the birth-place¹⁴ of Apollo.

¹ Asia Minor. ² Thebae. ³ Germania. ⁴ terra. ⁵ rus. ⁶ Parissii. ⁷ Palaestina. ⁸ Hierosolyma, -ae, or -a, -orum. ⁹ stabulum. ¹⁰ Andes, -ium. ¹¹ Italia superior. ¹² vallis. ¹³ Patāra, -orum. ¹⁴ locus natalis.

71. *The question, Whither?*

This question denotes motion towards or into a place.

(1) With the divisions of the earth, with countries and

large islands, the preposition *in* with the accusative is used; e. g. *To* or *into Europe*, *in Europam*; *in Italiam*; *in Siciliam*.

(2) With cities, villages and small islands, merely the accusative is used without a preposition, whatever be the declension of the noun; e. g. *To Rome*, *Romam*; *to Corinth*, *Corinthum*; *to Sulmo*, *Sulmonem*; *to Athens*, *Athenas*; *to Delphi*, *Delphos*; *to Cures*, *Cures*. A noun in apposition is used with or without *in*; e. g. *Cures*, (*in*) *urbem Sabinorum*.

(3) The same also applies to *domus* and *rus*. Hence *to the house*, *home*, *into the house*, is expressed by *domum*, or, when several houses of different men are spoken of, by *domos* (yet even then the singular is often used), yet the Latin says, *in domum meretriciam induci*, *in domum veterem remigrare e nova*; *to the country*, is expressed by *rus*. The accusative *humum* is not so used. *Domum* and *domos*, like the genitive *domi*, can have a possessive adjective, or a genitive joined with them (§ 69); e. g. *To my house*, *domum meam*, *tuam*, etc.; *domum Caesaris*.

(4) With all other names of places, *in* with the accusative is used; e. g. *Into (to) the city*, *in urbem*; *to the island*, *in insulam*; *in mundum*; *to or upon the mountain*, *in montem*; *in librum*.

Ad, however, is used when only the direction towards a place is denoted; e. g. *To travel to the coasts of Africa*, *ad oras Africæ proficisci*; *he hastened into Volaterræ to the camp of Sulla*, *ad Volaterras in—*. So always where the march of an army to a place is spoken of; e. g. *Caesaris ad Brundusium cursus*, *Caesar's march to Br.*

Examples.

(Here also the following detached expressions may be used first.)

To Asia. **To Tusculum.** **To Baiae.** **To Asia Minor.**
To Capua. **Into this house.** **To his house.** **To Carthage.**
To Thebes. **To Germany.** **To the earth.** **To Ephesus.**

Into the temple. To Gabii. To the country. To the war. To Troy. To Neapolis. To Paris. To Palestine. To Jerusalem. Into the water. Into the stable. To Cyprus, an island of the Mediterranean sea. To Andes. To Philippi. To Verona. To Aulo. To Ionia. Into the valley. Into the grove. To your house. To Patāra. To Delos, the birth-place of Apollo.

72. *The question, Whence?*

This question is used to denote a local object, or a place, out of which, or from which, something comes.

(1) With divisions of the earth, with countries and large islands, the preposition *a* is used; e. g. *To come from Italy*, *a b Italia venire*; *from Sicily*, a Sicilia.

(2) With cities, villages and small islands, not only the preposition *a* is used, but also often the ablative alone, without *a*; e. g. *To come from Corinth*, a Corintho, and Corintho. At the close of Cicero's letters, the place from which the letter comes is usually in the ablative; e. g. *Capua*, *from Capua*; *Lucade*, *from Lucas*, etc., where we, according to our mode of expression, should say, *Capua*, *Lucas*, to denote the place where the letter was written. Yet sometimes also the genitive is used, (where the nouns are of the first or second declension,) with which *scripta* or *scripsi* is to be understood. When the removal or going from one place to another, or from the place where something happens, is denoted, *a* cannot be omitted; e. g. *From Rome to Neapolis*, a Roma ad Neapolim; *he was carrying on war as soon as he left Brundusium*, jam a Brundusio.

73. (3) *Domus* and *rūs* are put in the ablative without a preposition; thus, *To come from home*, domo; *to come from the country*, rure, or ruri. The ablative *humo* is not so used. *Domo* can also take a possessive adjective with it, § 69; e. g. *To come from my house*, domo mea.

(4) With other relations of place, the prepositions *a*, *de* and *ex* are used; *a* mostly, when the place is on a level with

the other, seldom when it is higher; *de* and *ex* mostly, when it is higher; e. g. *To come from the forum*, a *foro*; *to come from Cicero*, a *Cicerone*; *to be seen from the tower*, *de* or *ex turri*.

Examples.

(The following detached expressions may be used first.)

From Asia. From Tusculum. From Baiae. From Asia Minor. From Capua. From this house. From my house. From Carthage. From Thebes. From Germany. From Ephesus. From the temple. From Gabii. From the country. From Troy. From Troas. From Neapolis. From Paris. From Palestine. From Jerusalem. From the stable. From Cyprus. From Andes. From Philippi. From Verone. From Ionia. From the valley. From the grove. From your house. From Patara. From Delos, the birth-place of Apollo.

74. *Other relations of place.*

All other relations of place are denoted by the appropriate prepositions.

Through, *per*; e. g. *Through Asia*, *per Asiam*; *through the city*, *per urbem*; *through Thebes*, *per Thebas*.

By, *near by*, *at*, *apud*, *ad*, *prope*; e. g. *At* or *near Thermopylae*, *apud Thermopylas*; *at Nola*, *ad Nolam*; *near Veseris*, *ad* or *apud Veserim*; *near by the city*, *prope urbem*; *very near Rome*, *proxime Romam*.

Towards a place, *ad*; e. g. *I went to Capua*, *profectus sum ad Capuam*. Comp. § 71, 4.

Before, *ante*; e. g. *Before the city*, *ante urbem*.

Out of, *e*, *ex*; e. g. *Out of Italy*, *ex Italia*; *out of Rome*, *e Roma*. But this preposition is used with a city, only when something really comes *out of* it, not where something only comes *from* it; e. g. *Navis Tyro, Epheso, Alexandria—venit*, *the ship came from Tyre—not ex Tyro, ex Epheso, ex Alex.*

Within, *intra*; e. g. *Within the city*, *intra urbem*.

Around, *circa* and *circum*; e. g. *Around Capua, circa Capuam.*

Without, *extra*; e. g. *Without Rome, extra Romam.*

Even to, *as far as*, *ad*, *usque** (with cities), *usque ad* (with countries); e. g. *Even to Egypt, usque ad Aegyptum; as far as Delphi, usque Delphos, or Delphos usque; as far as the borders, ad fines.*

Above, *super*; e. g. *Above Macedonia lies Thrace, super Macedoniam.*

Between, *inter*; e. g. *Between the Apennines and the Alps, inter Apenninum Alpesque.*

Beyond, *trans*, *ultra*; e. g. *Beyond the Apennines, trans Apenninum.*

On this side, *cis*, *citra*; e. g. *On this side of Rome, citra Romam.* And so the other relations of place are expressed by the appropriate prepositions.

Examples on §§ 67—74.

(1) That year, the Roman people were not more quiet¹ at home, than they had been before² in war. At Constanti-nople³, or, at Byzantium, as it was then called⁴, the eastern* Roman empire was established⁵. At Arpinum, a small free city⁶ of Latium, Cicero and Marius were born. In Upper Italy⁷, many writers were born; Catullus at Verona, Livy⁸ at Padua⁹, Virgil at Andes¹⁰, a village¹¹ near Mantua, and Cornelius Nepos probably¹² at Hostilia, a small city of that re-gion. Cicero came near¹³ being killed¹⁴ at his house by two Roman knights¹⁵. At Venice¹⁶, a famous ancient city of Upper Italy, is the extensive¹⁷ library of Saint¹⁸ Mark. The largest libraries are found¹⁹ at Paris²⁰, Göttingen²¹, Vienna²², Munich²³ and London²⁴. This year was distinguished²⁵ by nothing at home or abroad. In war, Marius rested²⁶ mostly on the ground²⁷. What happens to-day at Tralles²⁸, does not happen at Pergamus. I have resolved²⁹ to send him to the farms³⁰ which you have³¹ at Nola. Pliny³² had a villa near lake Larius. At Pergamus, Smyrna, Tralles, Apaméa,

* Only the poets and the later prose writers use *usque* alone without *ad*.—Zumpt.

Adramyttium and in other cities of Asia Minor, many Roman bankers³³ sojourned³⁴. The poet Archias was born at Antioch³⁵, once³⁶ a famous and wealthy³⁷ city. I had rather³⁸ live at Rome and in thy house, than at Mitylene or Rhodes³⁹. Then there was the greatest confusion⁴⁰ in the whole city. The north-west wind⁴¹ is accustomed to blow⁴² in this place⁴³.

¹ quietus. ² antea. ³ Constantinopolis. ⁴ nominari. ⁵ oriens. ⁶ condere. ⁶ municipium. ⁷ Italia superior. ⁸ Livius. ⁹ Patavium. ¹⁰ Andes. ^{-ium.} ¹¹ pagus. ¹² probabiliter. ¹³ paene. ¹⁴ interficere (indic. perf.) ¹⁵ eques. ¹⁶ Venitiae. ¹⁷ copiosus. ¹⁸ sanctus. ¹⁹ reperiri. ²⁰ Parissii. ²¹ Gottinga. ²² Vindobona. ²³ Monachium. ²⁴ Londinum. ²⁵ insignis. ²⁶ quiescere. ²⁷ humus. ²⁸ Tralles. -ium. ²⁹ destinare. ³⁰ praedium. ³¹ possidere. ³² Plinius. ³³ negotiator. ³⁴ morari. ³⁵ Antiochaea. ³⁶ quondam. ³⁷ copiosus. ³⁸ malle (had rather). ³⁹ Rhodus. ⁴⁰ perturbatio. ⁴¹ Caurus (north-west wind). ⁴² flare. ⁴³ locus.

(2) I was with him at Ephesus, as if¹ in my house. The soul dwells in the body, as if in another's² house. The Roman exiles³ often went⁴ to Rhodes, or Mitylene, or Marseilles⁵. The Luculli received⁶ into their house the famous poet, Archias, when⁷ he had come to Rome. Ten thousand Greeks marched⁸ to Persia, and Xenophon led them back⁹ to Athens, after a bloody¹⁰ battle¹¹ at Cunaxa. My brother went by ship¹² from Ephesus to Athens, I, on foot¹³, through Macedonia to Attica. In very important¹⁴ business¹⁵ of the state, the Roman senators, who in peace lived mostly¹⁶ on their farms, were called from the country¹⁷ into the city. Cicero travelled from Tarsus to Asia, and he made his journey¹⁸ in such a manner¹⁹ that the famine²⁰, which then was in all Asia, was checked²¹. The townsmen²² brought²³ gold and silver and other expensive articles²⁴ into the royal palace²⁵. The Vagenni invited²⁶ the Romans sojourning²⁷ in their city, to their houses, and slaughtered²⁸ them all. In Sicily, the death of Hiero had changed everything, and at Syracuse²⁹, many factions³⁰ had arisen³¹. Then, many miraculous signs³² appeared³³; at Lanuvium, the ravens³⁴ built³⁵ a nest within the temple of Juno; in Apulia, a green palm-tree³⁶ burnt³⁷; near Mantua, the river Mincius appeared bloody³⁸; at Cales³⁹, it rained⁴⁰ clay⁴¹, and at Rome, blood. A certain⁴² Hadrianus was burnt⁴³ alive⁴⁴ by the Romans, in his own house at Utica. In the whole camp there was the greatest disturbance⁴⁵. The pirates⁴⁶ in separate bodies⁴⁷ wandered⁴⁸ over the whole sea. I have commanded⁴⁹ that⁵⁰ the fugitive⁵¹ should be sought⁵² by ~~sea~~ and land.

¹ tanquam. ² alienus. ³ exul. ⁴ se conferre. ⁵ Massilia. ⁶ recipere.
⁷ cum (with subj.). ⁸ profici. ⁹ reducere. ¹⁰ cruentus. ¹¹ pugna.
¹² classe (by ship). ¹³ pedibus (on foot). ¹⁴ summus. ¹⁵ res. ¹⁶ plerumque.
¹⁷ rus. ¹⁸ iter. ¹⁹ tam (in such a manner). ²⁰ fames. ²¹ sedare.
²² oppidanus. ²³ comportare. ²⁴ res pretiosa (expensive article). ²⁵ dominus.
²⁶ invitare. ²⁷ commorari. ²⁸ obtruncare. ²⁹ Syracusae. ³⁰ factio.
³¹ exoriri. ³² prodigium (miraculous sign). ³³ apparere. ³⁴ corvus.
³⁵ facere. ³⁶ palma. ³⁷ ardere. ³⁸ cruentus. ³⁹ Cales, -ium. ⁴⁰ pluere
aliqua re. ⁴¹ creta. ⁴² quidam. ⁴³ exurere. ⁴⁴ vivus. ⁴⁵ perturbatio.
⁴⁶ praedo maritimus. ⁴⁷ dispersus (in separate bodies). ⁴⁸ vagari.
⁴⁹ mandare. ⁵⁰ ut. ⁵¹ fugitivus. ⁵² conquirere.

USE OF CASES TO DENOTE RELATIONS OF TIME.

75. Time can be expressed in very different relations. In English, we have different prepositions, to express the different ideas of time; e. g. *in*, *after*, *before*, *during*, *on*, *about*, etc. In Latin, also, time is variously expressed, as may be seen from the following divisions.

(1) *When? in or at what time?* This is a single point or period of time in which something happens, and is often qualified by an ordinal number. In English we sometimes use prepositions; e. g. *in*, *on*, *at*, *upon*; sometimes the accusative merely; e. g. *The first of January*; *the third year*. The Latins use only the ablative; e. g. *in a moment he perished*, *momen to interit*; *at the sixth hour, sexta hora*; *on the fifth day, quinto die*; *the first of January, Calendis Januariis*; *in the first month, mense primo*; *in the spring, vere*; *with the rising of the sun, ortu solis*; *at mid-day, meridie*.

Here also belongs the phrase, *in war*, when the war is definitely named, because it then denotes time; e. g. *in the first Punic war*, *primo bello Punico*, or *bello Pun. primo*. *In bello* would not denote time. So *festivals*; e. g. *at the Saturnalia, Saturnalibus*. So also other substantives, which do not of themselves denote time, are put in the ablative to express such a relation, with and without *in*, oftener without; e. g. *initio* and *principio*, *adventu* and *discessu* *alicujus*, *comitiis* and *tumultu*. See § 213, (5).

Here also belong many adverbs of time, most of which are obsolete ablatives; e. g. *mane*, *early*; *diluculo*, *at day-break*; *diu*, *by day*; *noctu*, *by night*; *sero*, *late*; *raro*, *seldom*; *vesperi*, *at evening*; *luce* (*luci*), *early*, *at day-break*.

Periods of life form an exception to this rule. With these *in* is

used, because the whole time of the age referred to is meant to be included; e. g. *in boyhood*, *in pueritia*. So when the circumstances of times, *condition*, especially *dangerous condition* are translated by *tempus*, *in* is also used with it; e. g. *in hoc tempore*, *in this condition*, *during this time*. *In tempore* or merely *tempore* is also used in the sense of, *at the right time*.

76. (2) During, within what time? A space of time during which something takes place. The numeral used is a cardinal number, or such words as *biduum*, *biennium*, are employed. Cicero uses either *inter*, or *intra*, or *per*, or still more frequently, the ablative with or without *in*; Everything which has happened *within* ten years, *inter decem annos*; no one *in*, *during*, *within* the last twenty years was an enemy of the state, (*in*) *his annis viginti*; this happened *within* the last three years, *per hoc triennium*. Moreover, also, *intervallo* or *spatio*; e. g. *spatio bienni*, *in two years*.

Where an action is repeated within a given period, *in* is generally used, being omitted but seldom, e. g. *twice a day*, *bis in die*; *three times a year*, *ter in anno*.

(3) How long? The period during which an action or event continues. In English we use the prepositions, *through*, *throughout*, *during*, often the simple accusative without a preposition. The Latins use the preposition *per*, or the accusative without a preposition;* e. g. *Through* the whole night, *per totam noctem*, *totam per noctem*, *totam noctem*; *I have tarried here two months*, (*per*) *duos menses hic commoratus sum*. But the preposition *per* must stand *before*, not *after* the substantive.

This must not be confounded with *how long?* i. e. *how much time* before or after something, for which see below.

77. (4) Before or after what time or event? The Latins express this by *ante* and *post* with the accusative; e. g. *He came to me two days before or ago*, *ante duos dies*; *I re-*

* Cicero rarely uses the ablative to denote duration of time, e. g. *Scriptum est triginta annis vixisse Panaetium*.—*De Off.* This usage is more frequent in the writers of the silver age, e. g. *quatuordecem annis exilium toleravit*.—*Tacit.*

turn after two years, post duos annos. Here the reckoning always commences from the present time.

(5) *How long before or after an event?* For this the Latins use the ablative. There are here two dates, one earlier and the other later, or one later and the other earlier. The earlier or later event is either positively expressed and put in the accusative, depending on *ante* or *post*, or it must be determined from what precedes, and then, in English we say, *before*, or *before that*, *after*, or *after that*; e. g. *Homer lived many years before Hesiod, multis annis ante Hesiōdum; Virgil lived many years after Ennius, multis annis post Ennium; three years before, or before that this war broke out, tribus annis ante, or tribus ante annis; two years after Horace died, duobus annis post, or duobus post annis.* When the time before or after which anything took place, does not stand in the sentence itself, as in the last two examples, then the prepositions or adverbs *ante* and *post* can stand with two words which are in the ablative, after or between them, as the examples show, but seldom before; e. g. *A n t e multo, long before, for multo ante.* But *antea* and *postea* cannot be used here.

Here also belong those words which express time how long before or after, indefinitely; viz. *long* (*multo*); *not long, short* (*non multo, paulo, brevi*); *not very long* (*non ita multo*); *pretty long* (*aliquanto*); *as long* (*quanto*); *so long* (*tanto*); e. g. *This happened long before (after), multo ante (post).*

With the words *ante* and *post*, a sentence with *quam* is often joined; e. g. *I knew this man a year before you did, anno ante, quam tu eum cognovisti.* So with *pridie, a day before*, and *postridie, a day after*, often followed by *quam*; e. g. *Pridie, quam has litteras dedi, the day before I gave this letter.* *Quo*, in the sense of *after that*, sometimes follows such words as *biduo, triduo, two, three days.*

Here belongs the question, *by how much time something is longer or shorter than another, or differs from another*,—where the ablative only is used; e. g. *You are two years older (younger) than I*, *d u o -bus annis*, not *d u o (duos) annos*.

Finally, the rule *hunc long* before or after must not be mistaken for this. That denotes the real continuance of an action before or after another. It is put, according to § 76, 3, in the accusative; e. g. *Marius continued seven years after his praetorship without authority*, *se p -tem annos post praeturam*, i. e. seven years long. There is also a difference between the question *how long* before or after, and the similar one, *When before or after something else*,—where the ablative is used, and the particular point of time is marked by an ordinal; e. g. *On the fifth month (quinto mense) after the death of her husband, she married another*.

78. (6) *When before the present time?* The present time is expressed by *ab hinc*, and the other time mentioned is usually put in the accusative, seldom in the ablative; e. g. *My father died twenty years ago* (before this time), *ab hinc viginti annis* or *annos mortuus est*, for *ante viginti annos*, which is equally good.

(7) *Since when, since what time?* Here the preposition *ex* is used; e. g. *Since that time*, *ex illo tempore*, also *ex illo merely*; *since or since the time that*, *ex quo*; also *quum*, when a period of time has been mentioned before; e. g. *since the first Punic war broke out*, *ex quo primum bellum Punicum exarsit*; *it is four years, that I have not seen you*, or *since I have seen you*, *quum te non vidi*, not *quod te non vidi*, which is found only after the classic period. The similar relation, *from what time*, is usually expressed by *a*; e. g. *He was drunk from the third hour*, *a hora tertia*; *from the eleventh to the fourteenth*, *a b undecimo die (usque) ad quartum decimum*.

(8) *About what time?* Here *ad*, *sub* and *fere* are used; e. g. *Towards or about day-break*, *ad primum auroram*; *towards (about) evening*, *sub (ad) vesperum*; *towards, about the ninth hour*, *hora fere nona*.

(9) *Till when? to what time? or for what time?* Here *in* with the accusative is used; e. g. *I defer this matter till to-morrow*, *in crastinum diem eam rem differo*; *the*

auction is fixed for the month of January, in mensem Januarium.

Examples on § 75—78.

(1) In the second Messenian¹ war, Aristomenes was commander of the Messenians. The planet of Saturn completes² its course³ in about⁴ thirty* years, but the moon her course³ around the earth, in twenty-eight** days. In the seventieth year before the birth of Christ⁵, October fifteenth,*** Virgil was born, and he died in the nineteenth year, Septembert twenty-second. It is proper⁶ to pluck out⁷ the feathers⁸ of the goose twice a year, in the spring and autumn. The gosling⁹ is fed¹⁰ the first ten days in the stable¹¹. Pompey made preparations¹² for this war, at the close of the winter¹³, he entered upon¹⁴ it, at the commencement of spring¹⁵, and ended¹⁶ it, in the middle¹⁷ of summer. A hundred and six years before the birth of Christ, Jugurtha¹⁸ was taken captive¹⁹ by¹⁹ Sulla. The very²⁰ same²¹ day on which he was taken prisoner, Crassus was put to death by Surena. The eclipses²² of the sun can be foretold²³ for a thousand years. C. Flaminius first proposed²⁴ an agrarian law²⁵, some years before the second Punic war. It pleased²⁶ Sulpicius Gallus to predict the eclipses of the sun and moon to the Romans long before. At length²⁷ the Macedonians with the Persians came at the same time, about day-break²⁸, into a valley surrounded²⁹ by a thick³⁰ fog. Animals are born, which live one day; among³¹ these, that which died about the eighth hour³², died in advanced³³ age. Cicero travelled from Tarsus on the fifth of January³⁴. On the thirteenth of February³⁵ he held court³⁶ at the forum of Lao-dicéa. Thence³⁷ he returned to Cilicia, where he remained³⁸ the whole month.

¹ Messenius. ² conficere. ³ circuitus. ⁴ circiter. ⁵ triceni. ⁶ duodecimeni. ⁷ Christus natus (birth of Christ). ⁸ Idus Octobres. ⁹ decimus Calendas Octobres, 22d Sep. ¹⁰ licet (it is proper). ¹¹ ebellere. ¹² pluma. ¹³ anser pullus (gosling). ¹⁴ pasceare. ¹⁵ stabulum. ¹⁶ apparare aliquid (to make preparations for something). ¹⁷ exiens hiems (close of winter). ¹⁸ suscipere (to enter upon). ¹⁹ iniens ver (commencement of spring). ²⁰ conficere. ²¹ medius. ²² capere (to take captive). ²³ per. ²⁴ ipse (comp § 126). ²⁵ idem. ²⁶ defectio solis. ²⁷ praedicere. ²⁸ ferre. ²⁹ lex agraria—aliquot (some). ³⁰ delectare. ³¹ aliquando. ³² lux. ³³ circumfusus. ³⁴ densus. ³⁵ ex. ³⁶ hora. ³⁷ provectus. ³⁸ Nonae Januariae (fifth of January). ³⁹ Idus Februarioe (the thirteenth of February). ⁴⁰ agere (to hold court). ⁴¹ inde. ⁴² commorari.

(2) I will deliberate¹ fully² with you concerning this thing, on the next³ day. The emperor Tiberius enjoyed excellent health⁴, during almost the whole time of his government⁵. In the times of Pompey⁶ and Cicero, pirates wandered⁷ over the whole sea. Antony⁸ was Cicero's school-fellow⁹ in boyhood¹⁰, his intimate friend¹¹ in youth*, and his colleague in the quaestorship. Socrates, a few days before his death, could have fled¹² from prison. The command¹³ against the Gauls was intrusted¹⁴ to Julius Caesar for many years. Yesterday evening, the seventh¹⁵ of March, I received your letter, which was written the first of February¹⁶. Julius Caesar received joyful intelligence at mid-night; therefore, on the following day, he broke up¹⁷ his camp at day-break¹⁸, and arrived at noon¹⁹, at the camp of the enemy. After²⁰ Caesar had routed²¹ the Treveri, he received intelligence, after some days, that²² the Suevi had collected²³ all their forces²⁴. The very thing²⁵ which you write to me, I had written to Cassius four days before. Ask²⁶ him why he left²⁷ the city so long after, rather²⁸ than immediately²⁹. Not very long after Horace, his patron³⁰ and friend Maecenas died. From the first³¹ of January to³² this hour, I have not heard anything of you. Caesar sent auxiliaries³³ to the townsmen³⁴, about midnight³⁵. Charles the Great subdued³⁶ almost all Germany, but after twenty years, his son Lewis³⁷ lost³⁸ it again³⁹. A monk⁴⁰ predicted⁴¹ this to Charles when dying; Thy son, said⁴² he, after twenty years, will lose everything which you have conquered⁴³. Appius Claudius died a year before the censorship of Cato, and nine years after his consulship. Pythius invited⁴⁴ the knight⁴⁵ Canius to supper⁴⁶, on the following⁴⁷ day. On the seventh day, in the night, I came home, where I remained⁴⁸ twenty days.

¹ agere. ² accurate. ³ proximus. ⁴ valere optime (to enjoy excellent health). ⁵ imperium. ⁶ Pompeius. ⁷ vagari. ⁸ Antonius. ⁹ condiscipulus. ¹⁰ pueritia. ¹¹ familiaris (intimate friend). * adolescens. ¹² effugere. ¹³ imperium. ¹⁴ committere. ¹⁵ Nonae Martiae (seventh of March). ¹⁶ Calendae Februariae (first of Feb.). ¹⁷ movere. ¹⁸ lux prima. ¹⁹ tempus meridianum. ²⁰ postquam (with perfect indic.). ²¹ fundere. ²² (acus. with the infin.). ²³ contrahere. ²⁴ copiae. ²⁵ id ipsum. ²⁶ querere ex aliquo (to ask any one). ²⁷ relinquere (comp. § 48). ²⁸ potius. ²⁹ continuo. ³⁰ sautor. ³¹ Calendae. ³² usque ad. ³³ auxilia. ³⁴ oppidanus. ³⁵ media nox. ³⁶ subigere. ³⁷ Ludovicus. ³⁸ amittere. ³⁹ rursus. ⁴⁰ monachus. ⁴¹ praedicere. ⁴² inquit. ⁴³ occupare. ⁴⁴ invitare. ⁴⁵ eques. ⁴⁶ coena. ⁴⁷ posterus. ⁴⁸ commorari.

ADJECTIVES AND PARTICIPLES.

79. The simpler and more general use of these has already been treated in the first Part. Other remarks will now be made on their more difficult features.

(1) Sentences containing the pronouns *who*, *which*, or a conjunction, e. g. *when*, *while*, *after*, *as*, and a verb belonging to these, can be abridged by means of adjectives and participles. As in English, instead of, *The teachers esteem a scholar who is attentive*, we can say, *an attentive scholar*; or instead of, *I fear the storm which approaches, the approaching storm*;—instead of, *Scipio consecrated the temple after it had been built*,—*Scipio consecrated the temple built*; so in Latin. By this abridgement, the adjectives and participles become qualifying words, and agree with their substantive in gender, number and case. Hence the foregoing examples can be translated, *Magistri discipulum attentum* (for *qui attentus est*) *aestimant*; *timeo tempestatem impendentem* (for *quae impendet*); *Scipio aedem exstructam* (for *quum exstructa esset*) *consecravit*.

In the same manner also, similar sentences, which contain a substantive, are abridged, since they are the same as a case of apposition; e. g. *This opinion was maintained by Torquatus who was a learned man*, a *Torquato homine eruditio*, for *qui homo eruditus erat*.

Examples.

This never pleases some¹ who are not very² unlearned. Many censure³ our labor⁴, which is by no means⁵ unpleasant to us. Who does not willingly⁶ read books which are good and useful? Who willingly undertakes⁷ any⁸ exercise of the body, which is laborious? There are others who, much⁹ unlike¹⁰ those, are simple-hearted¹¹ and ingenuous¹². The remembrance¹³ of a life which has been well spent¹⁴, affords¹⁵ great consolation¹⁶. The Romans fled for succor¹⁷ to any one¹⁸ who was distinguished¹⁹ for his virtue. The fear²⁰ of an affliction which threatens²¹, torments²² us. The condi-

tion²³ of men when dead²⁴, is different²⁵. The remembrance of calamities²⁶ which are past²⁷, is pleasant. We rejoice on account of²⁸ calamities which are past. You name to me two Romans, who are not only²⁹ the most just³⁰, but also³¹ the most learned³² men. We see the changes³³ of the moon, which not only³⁴ increases³⁵ but also decreases³⁶. We admire³⁷ the sun, not only when it rises³⁸ but when it sets³⁹. The multitude of stars which do not wander⁴⁰ in the heaven, is very great⁴¹. The Romans went against⁴² the enemy, who were going⁴³ to Rome, and met them as they were descending⁴⁴ into the Alban⁴⁵ vale. Tullus Hostilius received⁴⁶ the Albans into the city, after they had been conquered⁴⁷. A pleasing message⁴⁸ was brought⁴⁹ to Cincinnatus, when he was plowing.

¹ quidam. ² admödum. ³ reprehendere. ⁴ labor. ⁵ minime (by no means). ⁶ libenter. ⁷ suscipere. ⁸ ullus. ⁹ multum. ¹⁰ dispar. ¹¹ simplex (simple-hearted). ¹² apertus. ¹³ memoria. ¹⁴ actus. ¹⁵ praebere. ¹⁶ solatium. ¹⁷ confugere (to flee for succor). ¹⁸ unus aliquis. ¹⁹ praestare. ²⁰ timor. ²¹ impendere. ²² torquere. ²³ status. ²⁴ mori. ²⁵ diversus. ²⁶ labor. ²⁷ praeteritus. ²⁸ de (on account of). ²⁹ partim (not only). ³⁰ bonus. ³¹ partim (but also). ³² eruditus. ³³ varietas. ³⁴ tum (not only). ³⁵ crescere. ³⁶ senescere. ³⁷ admirari. ³⁸ oriri. ³⁹ occidere. ⁴⁰ inerrans. ⁴¹ maximus. ⁴² obviam ire. ⁴³ petere. ⁴⁴ descendere. ⁴⁵ Albanus. ⁴⁶ accipere. ⁴⁷ vincere. ⁴⁸ nuntius. ⁴⁹ afferre.

80. (2) Many English substantives governed by a preposition, may be translated into Latin by adjectives or participles, which then agree as adjectives with the substantives to which they refer. Such are, *against one's will*, invitus; *in one's life*, *in one's lifetime*, vivus; *contrary to expectation*, imprudens, necopinans, inopinans; *with knowledge*, sciens; *without knowledge*, ignarus, inscius, insciens; *in the presence of*, praesens; *in the absence of*, absens; *after death*, mortuus, etc.

In English we often unite with these words the pronouns, *my*, *thy*, *his*, etc., but in Latin these are omitted; e. g. *My brother gave this to me against my will*, frater mihi in vita; *my brother gave this to us against our will*, frater nobis in vita; *divine honor was paid to Augustus during his life and after his death*, Augusto vivo et mortuo divinus honor contigit.

Examples.

Great honor is but seldom¹ paid² to great men during their life. We have erected³ a statue⁴ to that emperor against our wishes. The Indian sages burn⁵ themselves often during their life. Cicero surprised⁶ me, contrary to my expectation. In war, many things often happen⁷ to the commanders, contrary to their expectation. Thou hast defended⁸ me, without my knowledge. The Greeks conveyed⁹ Achilles to Troy, contrary to his wish. Wicked men persecute¹⁰ their enemies¹¹, not only during their life but also after their death. Nothing will be more pleasant to me in my lifetime, than thy friendship. I have written two letters to you in your absence. Why do you compel¹² your daughter to marry¹³ against her wish?

¹ raro. ² contingere. ³ ponere. ⁴ statua. ⁵ cremare. ⁶ occupare. ⁷ accidere. ⁸ defendere. ⁹ deducere. ¹⁰ persequi. ¹¹ inimicus. ¹² cogere. ¹³ nubere.

(3) The Latins commonly employ adjectives of *countries*, *islands*, *cities* and *villages*, where the English uses both the name of the place with the prepositions *of* or *from*, and the adjective. As adjectives, they must agree with the substantive to which they belong; e. g. *Diodorus of Sicily*, *Diodorus Siculus*; *Cicero of Arpinum*, *Cicero Arpinas*; *Virgil of Andes*, *Virgilius Andinus*.

Examples.

(The adjectives not given below may be found in the Lexicon.)

Miltiades of Athens (or the Athenian). Pausanias of Lacedemon (or the Lacede~~n~~onian). Pelopidas and Epaminnondas of Thebes¹ (or Thebans). Timoleon of Corinth. Dion of Syracuse. Hannibal of Carthage (or the Carthaginian). Zenodotus of Ephesus. Heracides of Pontus². Aristophanes of Byzantium. Livy of Patavium (Padua). Theophrastus of Eresus³. Aristotle of Stagira⁴. Democritus of Abdēra⁵. Antipater of Tyre. Ovid of Sulmo. Horace of Venusia. Catullus of Verona.

¹ Thebānus. ² Ponticus. ³ Eresius. ⁴ Stagirites. ⁵ Abderites.

81. (4) When two or more adjectives belong to a sub-

stantive and denote really distinct qualities, they are connected almost wholly by *et*, *ac* or *atque*; e. g. *A long and excellent oration*, *oratio longa et praeclara*; *a great and wise man*, *vir magnus ac sapiens*. So, *magnifica et praeclara defensio*; *dubia formidolosa que tempora*; *nobilis homo et honestus*. But when adjective pronouns, e. g. *hic*, *ille*, *meus*; definite and indefinite numerals, e. g. *multi*, *plures*, *duo*; adjectives denoting material, e. g. *aureus*; time, e. g. *hodiernus*; place, e. g. *Alexandrinus*; or a person (where it stands for the genitive), e. g. *civilis*,—are joined with adjectives of quality, or when an adjective with its substantive expresses but a *single idea*, then they have no connecting word; e. g. *Magna mea officia*; *multi cives Romani*; *multa parva poemata*; *vasa argentea nobilia*; *tristis hodiernus dies*; *clarus ille portus Alexandrinus*; *novum bellum civile*; *magna mea vetera officia*; *externi multi clari viri*. Yet the adjective that stands in connection with *multi*, *ae*, *a* (many), is usually joined to it by *et*, *ac* or *atque*, in order that the specification of the number may be expressed emphatically, by itself; e. g. *tulit illa insula multos et crudeles tyrannos, not only many, but also cruel*. Three or more qualifying words are all connected with the first by *et*, *ac*, *atque*; e. g. *fortes et magni et clari homines*. Orators, however, in animated discourse allow even many adjectives to follow one another, without a connective; e. g. *Jupiter nos justos, temperatos, sapientes non efficit*.—But the Latin always says only, *Jupiter optimus, maximus*, without a connective.

Examples.

The whole Campanian¹ district². A good domestic education. The other³ splendid⁴ buildings⁵. A brave and patriotic⁶ army. The frightful⁷, insolent⁸ tribune of the people⁹. No foreign¹⁰, cruel¹¹ enemy. The poor¹², barren¹³ soil¹⁴. A good and popular¹⁵ law. An unadorned¹⁶, rough¹⁷ body. The little Esquiline¹⁸ gate¹⁹. There are many ridiculous fables of the ancient²⁰ gods. Dionysius carried²¹ away the great silver²² tables from²³ all the temples.

¹ Campānus. ² ager. ³ cetērus. ⁴ magnificus. ⁵ aedificūm. ⁶ patriae amans. ⁷ terribilis. ⁸ trux. ⁹ tribūnus plebis. ¹⁰ externus. ¹¹ crudēlis. ¹² exilis. ¹³ macer. ¹⁴ solum. ¹⁵ popularis. ¹⁶ incultus. ¹⁷ horridus. ¹⁸ Esquilinus. ¹⁹ porta. ²⁰ veteres. ²¹ auferre. ²² argenteus. ²³ de.

82. (5) In English, as before remarked, adjectives are not declined, and nothing but the connection can determine whether they agree with this or that substantive. Hence, in some sentences of the same apparent import, the meaning may be very different. This is frequently the case, where the words *first*, *last*, *alone* and the like occur. Particular care is therefore necessary in rightly constructing the corresponding Latin words, *primus*, *prior*, *ultimus*, *postremus*, *extremus*, *solus*, *unus*, *totus*; e. g. *I read this book first*, ego hunc librum *primus* legi, or ego hunc librum *primum* legi,—*primus*, if *first* refers to I, and the meaning is, *I was the first who read the book*; *primum*, if *first* refers to book, and the meaning is, *this book was the first which I read*. *He said this to me first*, ille mihi *primo* hoc dixit, ille mihi *hoc primum* dixit, or mihi ille *primus* dixit, according as the word *first* relates to *me*, to *this* or to *he*. *What writers did you read first?* quos scriptores *primos* legisti? *Tell it to me alone and to no one else*, dic mihi soli. *Did he alone meet you, or was some one with him?* solus ne ille tibi obviam venit? *Did he meet you alone, or was some one with you, tibine soli ille occurrit?* Twelve vultures appeared to Remus *first*, Remo *priori*.

The nominative of such words therefore refers to the subject, other cases to a subordinate case of the sentence. *Solum* and *primum* are also used as adverbs, when they refer to the verb of the sentence or make an object prominent, only adverbially; e. g. *I not only (solum) retain my estate, but also increase it*; *wisdom makes only happy*, *solum beatos*, i. e. not rich, not illustrious, etc. And so *after* stands in contrast with the adverb *first*.

Examples.

The pirates¹ attacked² every³ ship in the rear⁴ first. Aesculapius, as⁵ it is said, first dressed⁶ a wound⁷. Manlius Capitolinus alone had then⁸ preserved⁹ the Capitol. Ceres first gave¹⁰ laws in Attica and Sicily. The Thessalians¹¹ first fought¹² on¹³ horses, and the nation of the Phrygians¹⁴ first joined¹⁵ a span¹⁶. The Stoicks alone, and the first among¹⁷ all philosophers, asserted¹⁸ this. I have often said this to you alone, when no one was present¹⁹. The ancient Germans communicated²⁰ the rumors heard to the magistrate²¹ alone. I wish to read²² the letter of my brother to you alone. Thou alone hast betrayed²³ my secret²⁴ to my brother. Give to me this letter only, the others I do not wish²⁵ to read. Furius weakened²⁶ the authority of the aged²⁷ Camillus by his youthful²⁸ age, the only means by which²⁹ he was able. The Aetolians were forsaken³⁰ by the Romans, in³¹ whom alone they trusted³². Among* the Grecian states, the commander³³ entered³⁴ Corcyra first. This did not happen³⁵ to you alone. Bibulus attributes³⁶ this to himself alone. The wise man does not provide³⁷ for his body alone, but much³⁸ more³⁹ for the mind⁴⁰ and soul⁴¹. Only those indued⁴² with virtue, are rich.

¹ pirata. ² adoriri. ³ quisque (see § 58). ⁴ postrēmus (in the rear.)
⁵ ut. ⁶ obligare. ⁷ vulnus. ⁸ tum. ⁹ servare. ¹⁰ ferre. ¹¹ Thessalus.
¹² pugnare. ¹³ ex. ¹⁴ Phryx. ¹⁵ jungēre. ¹⁶ bigae. ¹⁷ ex. ¹⁸ discrēre.
¹⁹ nemine praesente (when no one was present). ²⁰ communicare cum aliquo (to communicate to any one). ²¹ magistratus. ²² légère. ²³ pro-
 dēre. ²⁴ res sécrēta. ²⁵ nolle (not to wish). ²⁶ levare. ²⁷ sen-
 tēnilis. ²⁸ qua (means by which). ²⁹ deserēre. ³⁰ (dative). ³¹ (dative).
 * (genitive). ³³ praefectus. ³⁴ adire. ³⁵ contingēre. ³⁶ attribuēre. ³⁷ pro-
 vidēre (with dative). ³⁸ multo. ³⁹ magis. ⁴⁰ mens. ⁴¹ animus. ⁴² pra-
 ditus.

83. (6) English adverbs are sometimes expressed in Latin by adjectives, when they qualify not merely the verb in a sentence, but also the subject, of which the verb affirms something. Otherwise the adverb must be used; yet even in the first case, the adverb might be retained in the Latin.

The following examples will illustrate both; *This wheel runs swiftly*, haec rota cito or cito ~~errit~~; but *this scholar paints beautifully*, hic discipulus pulchre (not pul-cher) pingit; (for if a wheel runs swiftly, it is itself, at the

same time, swift; but if a scholar paints beautifully, he is not therefore, at the same time, beautiful himself); *increase thy estate actively*, strenūs or strenūe ange rem tuam familiarem; *you have expressed your opinion clearly and perspicuously*, dilucide et perspicue; *I live happily*, beatus or beate; *I do this willingly*, libens or libenter; *he sits very near*, proximus or proxime.

Examples.

Old men¹ walk² slowly³. The woman spoke⁴ fearlessly⁵. Aristotle has expressed⁶ this thought⁷ very happily⁸. I can by no means⁹ pass¹⁰ this over silently¹¹. This is silently granted¹². Since¹³ it is not lawful¹⁴ for them to speak freely¹⁵, they ask¹⁶ this of you silently. I live most unhappily¹⁷. When Epaminondas had heard this, he died joyfully¹⁸, and breathed out¹⁹ his life²⁰ fearlessly²¹.

¹ senex. ² incedere. ³ tardus. ⁴ loqui. ⁵ non timidus. ⁶ exprimere. ⁷ sententia. ⁸ egregius. ⁹ nullo modo (by no means). ¹⁰ praeterire. ¹¹ tacitus. ¹² concedere. ¹³ quoniam. ¹⁴ licere (to be lawful). ¹⁵ liber. ¹⁶ rogare. ¹⁷ miserrimus. ¹⁸ laetus. ¹⁹ efflare. ²⁰ anima. ²¹ animosus.

84. (7) In English, we often use substantives governed by prepositions to denote *time* or *place*, e. g. *in the beginning*, *in the middle*, where the same may be expressed in Latin by adjectives; e. g. *In the beginning* or *first part*, primus; *in the middle*, medius; *at the end* or *last part*, extremus, ultimus; *on the summit*, *on the surface*, summus; *in the inner part*, intimus, etc. As adjectives, they must agree with their substantives; e. g. *I dwell in the first part of the city*, habito in prima urbe; *in the middle of the city*, in media urbe; *in the extreme or most remote part of the city*, in extrema (ultima, summa) urbe; *on the top of the tree*, in summa arbore; *I touch the surface of the water*, tango summam aquam; *the enemy advanced into the middle of the city*, in medium urbem. Hence, *auricula infima*, *the ear-lap*.

Examples.

At¹ the end of the letter, the farewell² is omitted³. In the

beginning of spring, the swallows⁴ and the storks⁵ appear first. Decius Mus rushed⁶ into the midst of the enemy. When I am pushed⁷ in the middle of the way⁸, I cannot accuse⁹ one who is at the end¹⁰ of the way. Many worms¹¹ do not die, when they are cut¹² in two in the middle. The ancient astronomers placed¹³ the earth in the middle of the world. Pompey made preparations¹⁴ for this war at the end of winter, entered upon¹⁵ it in the beginning of spring, and terminated¹⁶ it in the middle of summer. Anapis and Amphinomus carried¹⁷ their father through the midst of the flames of Ætna. In the inner part of the sanctuary¹⁸ was an image¹⁹ of Ceres.

¹ in. ² vale. ³ deesse. ⁴ hirundo. ⁵ ciconia. ⁶ immittēre. ⁷ impellēre.
⁸ via. ⁹ accusare. ¹⁰ summus. ¹¹ vermis. ¹² dissēcare (to cut in two).
¹³ ponēre (with in and the ablat.). ¹⁴ apparare (to make prep. for).
¹⁵ suscipēre (to enter upon). ¹⁶ conficēre. ¹⁷ gestare. ¹⁸ sacrarium.
¹⁹ signum.

85. Comparative.

The force of the Latin comparative may be expressed in English in the following ways: (1) *Somewhat, very, pretty, a little; e. g. The place is somewhat, a little dark, locus est obscurior.* (2) *Too, too much,—in which case the comparative is usually followed by quam ut; e. g. The times are too oppressive for us to rejoice, tempora graviora, quam ut gaudēre possimus.* (3) *So—as; e. g. Nothing is so easy, as this, nihil est facilius, quam hoc.* (4) *More—than; e. g. This man is more fortunate, than prudent, hic homo felicior est, quam prudentior.* (5) *Not so—as, where in both members of the English sentence the positive is used, but in Latin the comparative, yet both of the Latin comparatives are transposed, and the word *not* is omitted; e. g. This advice was not so pleasing to Alexander, as useful, hoc consilium Alexandro erat utilius, quam carius.* (6) *Less—than, where there is a similar transposition of the comparative; e. g. This book is less entertaining, than profitable for study, salubrior studiis, quam dulcior.* But it is to be observed in all these six instances, that they can be translated in the usual way by positives.

86. The two phrases, *as, as much*, and *as little, just as little*, may also be expressed by comparative adverbs.

As, as much, may be translated by *non minus, nihil minus*; e. g. *Alcibiades is as much distinguished by his virtues, as his vices*, *Alcibiades non minus virtutibus, quam vitiis*.

The phrases, *as little, just as little*, may be expressed by *non magis, nihil magis*, or *non plus, nihil plus*; e. g. *That will happen as little to-day, as yesterday*, *hodie non magis, quam heri*. For the difference between *magis* and *plus*, see under § 547.

87. (1) When but two persons or things are spoken of, the comparative is used in Latin, as in English, although the English superlative is sometimes used here. We say in regard to two sons of a father, *that is the elder, and this the younger*. So the Latin, *ille est natu major, hic minor*. *He spends the greater part of the year in the country, the rest in the city*, *majorem anni partem*. Hence the comparative is also used, at least more generally, when one tacitly divides a great whole, containing many things, into two parts, and treats of one of them; e. g. *Let us touch upon the more important only*, *potiora tantum attingamus*. When a discourse has two parts, then the *first* part is *prior pars*, and the *second and last* — *posterior pars*, and when the *first* of two persons answers, he answers *prior*; the *first six* of twelve books, is *sex priores*, of more than twelve, *sex primi*. The question *which*, is here asked by *uter, utra, utrum*, not by *quis, quae, quid*; e. g. *Which (of two) is the younger*, *uter est minor?*

(2) An affirmative superlative can also be well expressed by the periphrastic negative *nihil est* with the comparative, followed by *quam* with the nominative, or, instead of *quam* with the nominative, the ablative alone is still more frequently used; e. g. *The world is the most magnificent thing*, *nihil est praestantius, quam mundus*, or *nihil est*

mundo praestantius; this is the greatest kingdom, nihil est maius, quam hoc regnum, or nihil est hoc regno maius, or quo regno nihil est maius.

In phrases of this kind, *nihil* very often occurs with *persons*, for *nemo*; e. g. *No one was more cruel than Nero*, *nihil fuit crudelius*, *quam Nero*, or *nihil fuit Nerone crudelius*. The idea is expressed still more vividly by the interrogatives *quis est*, *quid est*, with the comparative: *Quis (quid) fuit crudelior (crudelius) Nerone?*

Examples.

Nothing is so desirable¹ as a sound² mind³. Ulysses was more cunning⁴ than brave. The winter of the past⁵ year was very severe⁶. This wine is too sour⁷ to be drunk. (Lat. *quam ut id bibi possit*). Old age⁸ is somewhat reserved⁹ and morose¹⁰. Aristides was not so timid as modest. Themistocles was more shrewd¹¹ than just. Cicero's father had two sons,—the elder¹² is the renowned orator. The poems¹³ of Catullus are too licentious¹⁴. These houses are not so splendid¹⁵ as convenient¹⁶. Between Caesar and Pompey a civil¹⁷ war broke out¹⁸; the cause¹⁹ of the one²⁰ seemed²¹ the better, that of the other, the stronger²². Jugurtha feared²³ his brothers just as little, as the Senate and Roman people. Our acquaintance²⁴ is most intimate²⁵. Most²⁶ of the exploits²⁷ of Datames are very obscure²⁸. Reason is the best thing, (according to No. 2). By too severe²⁹ diseases of the body, the pleasure³⁰ of life is interrupted³¹. No one is more dear³² to me than my brother. I esteem³³ Pompey as much as Caesar. Philosophy is affected³⁴ just as little by threats³⁵ as by entreaties. I have received from you two letters; I will reply to the former first.

¹ *praestans*. ² *sanus*. ³ *mens*. ⁴ *versutus*. ⁵ *praeteritus*. ⁶ *saevus*.
⁷ *acidus*. ⁸ *senectus*. ⁹ *tectus*. ¹⁰ *morosus*. ¹¹ *callidus*. ¹² *magnus*.
¹³ *carmen*. ¹⁴ *lascivus*. ¹⁵ *magnificus*. ¹⁶ *commodus*. ¹⁷ *civilis*. ¹⁸ *exardescere*. ¹⁹ *causa*. ²⁰ *alter*. ²¹ *videri*. ²² *firmus*. ²³ *timere*. ²⁴ *familiaritas*.
²⁵ *conjunctione* (according to No. 2). ²⁶ *plerique*. ²⁷ *res gesta*. ²⁸ *obscurus*. ²⁹ *gravis*. ³⁰ *jucunditas*. ³¹ *impedire*. ³² *carus*. ³³ *diligere*. ³⁴ *commovere*. ³⁵ *minae*.

88. It is further to be remarked, that three different ablatives can be connected with the comparative. The one shows in *what respect* one person or thing excels another,

the next *how much* one person or thing excels another, and the third the person or thing that another excels; e. g. *Man is much more distinguished in boldness than woman*, here the words *in boldness*, *much* and *than woman*, are expressed by the ablatives, *audacia*, *multo*, *multiere*.

In reference to these three ablatives, the following is to be observed:

(1) The first ablative shows *wherein* or *in what respect*, one person or thing excels another; e. g. *I am greater in body, corpore*; *thou art more distinguished in genius, ingenio*.

89. (2) The second ablative shows *how much* one person or thing excels, or is inferior to another, in any respect; e. g. *Greater by half*, *dimidio major*; *smaller by two feet*, *duobus pedibus minor*; *three years older*, *tribus annis major*. In English the preposition is sometimes used, sometimes omitted; e. g. *I am an inch larger*, or *larger by an inch*, *uno dígito major*; *a day younger*, or *younger by a day*, *uno díe minor*. The general expressions by adjectives and pronouns to denote measure and degree, belong here, viz. *by much*, *much*, *by far*, *multo*; *by a little*, *little*, *not much*, *parvo*, *paulo*; *by how much*, *how much*, *how far*, *the*, *quanto*; *by so much*, *so much*, *the*, *tanto*; *by which*, *by which means*, *the*, *quo*; *by this*, *so much*, *the*, *eo* or *hoc*; *by a considerable*, *pretty much*, *considerable*, *by a good deal*, *aliquanto*; *in nothing*, *in no respect*, *nihilo*, etc.; e. g. *The closer the net is, so much (or the) better*, *quo (quanto) densius est rete, eo (tanto) melius*; *this is much (by far) more useful than that*, *multo utilius*. The English *even* and *still*, which also strengthen the comparative, may be expressed by *etiam* or *multo*; e. g. *This pain was now still more troublesome than before*, *nunc etiam molestior, quam antea*. In sentences of general import, which do not speak of a definite subject (*this*, *that*, *this disease*, *that physician*), e. g. *the more learned any one is*, *quo-*

quis or *quisque* is seldom used classically with the comparative, but *ut quis* with the superlative. Comp. § 95, 2.

90. (3) The third ablative denotes a person or thing which another excels, or to which it is inferior. This ablative consequently expresses the object, whether a person or thing, with which another of the first member of the sentence is compared. The English connects the two objects compared, by the particle *than*. The Latin expresses this by *quam*; but according to Latin usage, *quam* can also be omitted, in some instances, and instead of it, the declinable word which follows it, can be put in the ablative; e. g. *The earth is smaller than the sun*, terra est minor, *quam sol*; or, without *quam*, terra est minor *sole*; and with the usual transposition, terra est *sole* minor; *no virtue is more pleasing than liberality*, nulla virtus liberalitate est jucundior, for *quam liberalitas*.

91. But this change to the ablative without *quam*, does not always take place, where in Latin a declinable word follows *quam*. The ablative without *quam* can be used only in the following instances:

(1) When the nominative follows *quam*; therefore the subject of the first member is compared with another; e. g. *men are better than beasts*, meliores quam bestiae, instead of which, meliores bestiis, or bestiis meliores; *the palms are higher than other trees*, altiores, quam aliae arboreis, instead of which, altiores aliis arboribus, aliis arboribus altiores.

It is no exception to this rule, if such a sentence is preceded by the conjunction *that*, and is translated into Latin by the accusative with the infinitive, by which construction both the English nominatives become accusatives in Latin; e. g. *It is certain, that men are better than beasts*, homines meliores esse, quam bestias. Here also, instead of *quam bestias*, the Latins can say *bestiis*, since the accusative takes the place of the nominative.

92. (2) When an accusative follows (*quam*) *than*, but which in English can be explained by the verb *to be*, and the nominative; e. g. *I know no more faithful friend than this youth*, which signifies, *than this youth is*, *quam hunc juvenem*,—instead of this, *hoc juvene*; *why shall I consider Herodotus more to be trusted than Ennius*, which signifies, *than Ennius is*, *quam Ennium*, or instead of it, *Ennio*. The ablative for *quam* with the accusative of the object, occurs very frequently among the poets, e. g. *cur olivum sanguine viperino cautius vitat?*—*Hor.* In prose this is far more seldom, but yet sufficiently well established, e. g. *est boni consulis suam salutem posteriorem salute commun i ducere*.—*Cicero*.

93. On the contrary, an omission of *quam*, and a variation of the case (i. e. either *quam* and the nominative, or the ablative without *quam*) is not admissible in the following instances:

(1) When the use of the ablative, instead of *quam* with the nominative, might occasion ambiguity; e. g. *Europa est Asia minor*, can mean, *Europe is less than Asia*, and *Asia is less than Europe*.

(2) When a genitive, a dative, an accusative (the two cases mentioned under § 91 and 92 excepted), or an ablative, would follow *quam*, then *quam* cannot be omitted; and still less, can it be omitted, when it stands before an indeclinable word. Hence in the following phrases, there can be no omission of *quam*, or any variety in the construction: *If I forget this man less than my brother*, *quam fratri mei*, or *quam fratrem meum*; *my father has given me a greater part than my brother*, *quam fratri meo*; *my father has rewarded me more amply than you*, *quam te*; *he has given me more than I was expecting*, *quam expectabam*; *the inhabitants of Delos considered Apollo more holy than any of the other gods*, *quam quemquam deorum*.

Cicero and others do not always use the ablative when it could

stand according to the rule, but they often introduce *quam* for the purpose of speaking more definitely and distinctly. Thus, Cicero says, *Luna autem, quae est major, quam dimidia pars terrae,* though he might have said, *dimidia parte terrae.* *Catonem nostrum non tu amas plus, quam ego;* and so very often.

Quam is omitted with such nouns and adjectives as, *expectatione* (*opinione*), *spe*, *dicto*, *solito*, *justo*, *arquo*; e. g. *Sooner than any one supposed*, *omnium opinione celerius*; *less than usual*, *solito minor*; *too long*, *justo (ae quo) longior*. So the Latins often speak.

94. Finally, the following peculiar usage is to be noticed. After the comparatives *plus*, *amplius* and *minus* followed by a numeral, *quam* is not usually expressed, but yet the numeral with its substantive suffers no change of case, and does not pass into an ablative; e. g. *This field cannot support more than five thousand men*, *non amplius hominum quinque millia*; *not more than two hundred horsemen escaped*, *haud amplius ducenti equites*; *with not more than ten men*, *cum haud plus decem hominibus*; *this place is distant from the city less than three hundred paces*, *minus trecentos passus*. The Latins consider *plus* and *minus* as a mere addition, therefore, *two hundred horsemen, not more.*

Examples.

(1) The more cunning¹ and artful² any one³ is, so much the more hateful⁴ and suspected⁵ is he. There is no surer⁶ bond⁷ of friendship, than sympathy⁸ and a communion⁹ of counsels¹⁰ and wishes¹¹. We ought¹² to be more ready¹³ for our own, than for the common¹⁴ dangers. Nature has bestowed¹⁵ upon man nothing better than the shortness of life. The larger every¹⁶ good book is, the better it is. Nothing can be more pleasant and dear to me, than thy life. In nothing¹⁷ can we more easily obtain¹⁸ the favor of the people¹⁹ than by civility²⁰. Although²¹ Hector was inferior²² to Achilles in courage²³, yet, in the mildness of his disposition²⁴, he was more distinguished²⁵ than he. The greater the renown which we obtain²⁶, the more shall we be exposed²⁷ to the envy of others. Doest thou believe²⁸, that²⁹ anything is better for man than friendship? When Mummius had destroyed³⁰ Corinth, he was in no respect richer than before³¹. Wise men consider³² peace better³³ than innumerable triumphs. Epaminondas held³⁴ the command³⁵ four months

longer³⁶ than the people had ordered. Nature has given one³⁷ more³⁸ strength, than another. There are animals which do not live more than a year, and an insect which does not live more than a day. The Gymnasium lies³⁹ less than three hundred paces⁴⁰ from the city. I have lived with this man more than a year. The life of Procles was a year shorter, than that⁴¹ of his brother Eurysthenes.

¹ versutus. ² callidus. ³ quis. ⁴ invitus. ⁵ suspectus. ⁶ certus. ⁷ vinculum. ⁸ consensus. ⁹ societas. ¹⁰ consilium. ¹¹ voluntas. ¹² debere. ¹³ promptus. ¹⁴ communis. ¹⁵ praestare. ¹⁶ omnis. ¹⁷ nulla re. ¹⁸ adipisci. ¹⁹ vulgus. ²⁰ comitas. ²¹ etsi. ²² parvus. ²³ fortitudo. ²⁴ mitis animus (mildness of disposition). ²⁵ praestant. ²⁶ adipisci. ²⁷ prope. ²⁸ num eritis (dost thou believe). ²⁹ (acc. with the inf.). ³⁰ delere. ³¹ antea. ³² ducere. ³³ potior. ³⁴ gerere. ³⁵ imperium. ³⁶ diu. ³⁷ alter. ³⁸ plus (with the genitive). ³⁹ esse. ⁴⁰ passus. ⁴¹ (comp. § 125).

(2) Crassus was more desirous of gold than of renown. Anaxagoras was ignorant¹, that² the sun was much larger than the whole earth; for he believed, that it was only³ a little smaller than the Peloponnesus. Spare⁴ bodies have more blood⁵ than the corpulent⁶, which have more flesh⁷ than blood. A walk⁸ in⁹ the open air¹⁰ is far better and more healthful¹¹, than in a colonnade¹²—better in the sun, than in the shade¹³. Cicero was generally¹⁴ accustomed to praise Caesar more¹⁵ than Pompey. The Sicilians and the other Greeks sometimes¹⁶ made the month longer, by one or two days. Any¹⁷ peace with the citizens, seems to me more advantageous than a civil war. All this is much better known¹⁸ to you than to me. The Lacedemonians lived more¹⁹ than seven hundred years, with²⁰ the same²¹ customs, and with unchanged²² laws. Thy letter was more pleasing to our Atticus than to me. What is there in the whole²³ heaven, and upon the earth, more godlike than reason? A righteous man loves²⁴ himself, in no respect more²⁵ than another²⁶. Not less than fifty cities revolted²⁷ to king Philip.

¹ nescire. ² (acc. with inf.). ³ tantum. ⁴ tenuis. ⁵ sanguis (gen.). ⁶ crassus. ⁷ caro (gen.). ⁸ ambulatio. ⁹ sub. ¹⁰ divum (open air). ¹¹ saluber (salubris). ¹² porticus. ¹³ umbra. ¹⁴ plerumque. ¹⁵ magis. ¹⁶ interdum. ¹⁷ omnis. ¹⁸ notus. ¹⁹ amplius. ²⁰ (ablative). ²¹ unus. ²² immutatus. ²³ omnis. ²⁴ diligere. ²⁵ plus. ²⁶ alter. ²⁷ deficere.

95. *The Superlative.*

This is used as follows:

(1) For our positive, strengthened by prefixing *very*, *ex-*

ceedingly, extraordinarily, right, wholly, perfectly, etc. e. g. A very learned man, vir doctissimus; this man is wholly like you, tibi simillimus. In general, the ancients use it more than we do, to express praise or blame.

(2) It is used almost always for the comparative, where the word *the*, before a comparative in one clause, is followed by *so much the*, or simply *the*, in another. This usage occurs where the proposition is general, and is not confined to a single definite person or thing, or to several, as *I, this, the physician, this teacher*, but to what is indefinite, as *any one, one, a physician, etc.* *The*—*any one* with the comparative, is expressed in Latin by *ut quisque* with the superlative, and *so much the*, or simply *the*, by *ita* with the superlative; e. g. *The more learned any one is, so much the more, (or the more) modest is he, ut quisque est doctissimus, ita est modestissimus; the more difficult any cause is, the more able (so much the more) advocate should be employed, ut quaeque causa difficilima est, ita optimus patronus adhibendus est.* Nevertheless, the comparative is also used in the same manner, yet seldom by the best classical writers; e. g. *quo quis* or *quisque est doctior, eo est modestior.* With the comparative, *quo quisque* is always used, when a substantive belongs to it, but without a substantive, both *quo quis* and *quo quisque*. In one of the two clauses, a superlative adverb can be used. Comp. § 96.

Examples.

The girl was *very* sad¹. What is true, plain² and sincere³, is perfectly adapted⁴ to nature. The more powerful and wealthy⁵ any one is, the more luxurious and vicious is he. The more ignorant⁶ any one is, the more haughty⁷ is he. The power⁸ of conscience⁹ is exceedingly great. The more brave any one is, the more noble¹⁰ is he. A very great crowd¹¹ of men accompanied¹² the emperor. In diseases of the body, the more dangerous they¹³ are, the better and more skilful¹⁴ physician is sought.

¹ tristis. ² simplex. ³ sincerus. ⁴ aptus. ⁵ opulentus. ⁶ imperitus.
⁷ arrogans. ⁸ vis. ⁹ conscientia. ¹⁰ generosus. ¹¹ turba. ¹² comitari.
¹³ quisque. ¹⁴ nobilis.

96. What has been said of the two degrees of adjectives, is true also of adverbs. These likewise occur in the comparative and superlative, not merely in their proper and natural signification, but also with the significations and different constructions already mentioned, of which adjectives admit.

In English, a periphrasis by the preposition *with* and a substantive, often takes the place of an adverb of quality, in Latin; e. g. *With pleasure*, *libenter*; *with more* (greater) *pleasure*, *libentius*; *with the greatest pleasure*, *libentissime*.

Examples.

A calm¹ mind² can do³ everything better. Men very often err. Death and pain are most⁴ feared⁵. Socrates lived far more happily⁶ than Croesus. Caesar defended⁷ himself with the greatest obstinacy⁸. Darius never drank impure water with greater pleasure⁹, than when he was thirsty¹⁰. Men very easily believe what they hope for. Many men speak eloquently¹¹, but not prudently¹²; others on the contrary¹³, do not speak so eloquently, as prudently. The ancient Romans observed nothing with more conscientiousness¹⁴, than an oath¹⁵. We do not with propriety¹⁶ call him happy, who possesses¹⁷ much; with greater propriety, he takes¹⁸ the name of happy, who wisely employs¹⁹ the gifts²⁰ of the gods. Parents, with the greatest propriety, intrust²¹ their children²² to wise men. Thou hast pronounced²³ this syllable²⁴ too short. The more honestly any one lives, the less will he injure²⁵ others. The more any one refers²⁶ everything, which he does²⁷, to²⁸ his own advantage²⁹, so much the less is he a good man.

¹ tranquillus. ² mens. ³ facere. ⁴ multum. ⁵ timere. ⁶ beatus. ⁷ defendere. ⁸ pertinaciter. ⁹ jucunde. ¹⁰ sitiens. ¹¹ diserte. ¹² prudenter. ¹³ contra. ¹⁴ religiose. ¹⁵ jurandum. ¹⁶ recte. ¹⁷ possidere. ¹⁸ occupare. ¹⁹ collocare. ²⁰ munus. ²¹ committere. ²² liberi. ²³ pronuntiare. ²⁴ syllaba. ²⁵ offendere. ²⁶ referre. ²⁷ facere. ²⁸ ad. ²⁹ commodum.

97. When an explanation, by the preposition *of* or *among*, is connected with the comparative or superlative, it is more usually ex-

pleased in Latin by the genitive, more seldom by the prepositions *ex* and *in*; e. g. *The older of the brothers pleased me more*, *major fratribus*; *Demosthenes was the most distinguished among the orators of antiquity*, *maximus or summus oratorum*; *Thales was the wisest among the seven wise*, *sapientissimus in septem fuit Thales*. See more on this below, under the genitive.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

(Let the student learn, first of all, to distinguish the cardinal from the ordinal numbers.)

98. The *cardinal numbers* show *how many* persons or things are meant, and hence in all these numbers above *one* (*unes*, *a*, *um*), more than one person or thing is denoted; e. g. *Three boys, twelve scholars, thirty soldiers*. The cardinal number often occurs in English, where the Latin uses the distributive. Comp. § 101.

But the *ordinal number* never denotes more than one. It denotes *what one* in a series, a class and a regularly disposed number; e. g. *The third month, the fifth scholar, the fourth camp* (*quarta castra*).

We, however, often exchange the ordinal for the cardinal, when we place the numeral after, instead of before the substantive; e. g. *The year twenty before Christ*. We also sometimes mix the cardinal with the ordinal numbers; e. g. We say *twenty-third*, joining *twenty*, a cardinal, with *third*, an ordinal number. The Latins never adopt this usage. In both the cases just mentioned, the Latins use the ordinal number, e. g. *anno vicesimo ante Christum, vigesimus tertius*.

In the best ancient writers, the forms of certain ordinals, which have crept into some grammars, are not used; such as *decimus tertius*, *decimus quartus*, etc. to *decimus septimus*. In all these, the smaller number must stand before the greater; as, *tertius decimus*, etc. Hence, *tertiadecimanus*, *a soldier of the thirteenth legion*. But from twenty upward, the greater stands either before or after the smaller. If it stands before the smaller, it does not stand between, e. g. *tricesimus sextus*. But if it stands after the smaller, it is almost always placed between; e. g. *sextus et tricesimus*, not *sextus tricesimus*. It is more correct to say, *duodevigesimalis*, not *octavus decimus*; *duodeviginti*, not *decem et octo*; *undevigesimalis*, not

nonus decimus; undeviginti, not decem et novem; tres et viginti, not viginti (et) tres. Where *hundreds* occur, the smaller number is generally placed after, without *et*; e. g. *centesimus quadragesimus*.

99. The word *thousand* is expressed either by *mille* (mile), or *millia* (milia). But *mille* signifies only a thousand, and *millia*, many thousand. The singular, *mille*, is seldom used as a substantive, and is generally connected only with genitives denoting money and measure; e. g. *mille denarium*, *mille passuum*. It is for the most part considered as an adjective, and is joined, without inflection, to any case of a substantive; e. g. *Mille milites*, *mille militum*, *mille milibus*. But the plural, *millia*, which is declinable, is always considered as a substantive, and has the word connected with it, in the genitive; e. g. in the nominative, *Two thousand soldiers*, *duo millia militum*, in the genitive, *duorum millium militum*, in the dative, *duobus millibus militum*, etc. But when another smaller number follows the word *thousand*, and the substantive belonging thereto is placed after this smaller number, then the substantive is not considered as dependent on *millia*, but is put in any case the sentence requires; e. g. *3300 knights*, *tria millia et trecenti equites*; *2500 stadia*, *duo millia et quingenta stadia*; *5417 sesterces* (accusative), *quinque millia quadringentos septendecim numeros*. So also, when the substantive is placed first; e. g. *3300 knights*, *equites tria millia et trecenti*, where, however, the genitive also can be used. But if the substantive is placed immediately after the word *thousand*, it must be in the genitive, and the smaller number stands after, in the case required; thus, *tria millia equitum et trecenti*.

100. When the word *every*, is used with the English cardinal or ordinal, in Latin only the ordinal is found, and the word *every* is expressed by *quisque*, which is placed directly after the ordinal; e. g. *He comes to me every three days*, or *every third day*, *tertio quoque die ad me venit*; *every*

five years, or every fifth year, quinto quoque anno. The word *always*, if it stands with an ordinal, is also expressed by *quisque*, which is placed after the numeral; e. g. *The seventh day is always a festival, septimus quisque dies est festus.*

101. The distributives, e. g. *Two and two, two by two, three and three, three by three, bini, terni*, etc., are used to express a distribution into equal parts, among several. Hence they are employed:

(1) To denote, that the number named belongs especially to *each* person or thing (of two or more that are named); e. g. *He gave to each of us two books*, dedit nobis bino*s* libros. On the contrary, dedit nobis duos libros would signify, *he gave us two books in all*, which we must divide among ourselves. The *each* or *every* (*unusquisque*) is therefore contained in the *bini*. Yet *each* or *every* can also be translated by *unusquisque* or *singuli*. In this case, however, the second numeral of the sentence must be a distributive; e. g. *To every soldier he gave one (two, three) sesterce* (*sesterces*), *singulis militibus dedit singulos (binos, ternos) sestertios*; *every pillar (singulae columnae) cost five hundred (quingenis) sestertes*; *to every one of you two feet of land is assigned, unicuique vestrum bini pedes*. The idea of *each* is also contained in *viritim*, which requires the distributive in connection with it.

But in English the words, *each, every* are sometimes not expressed, but must be supplied by the mind; e. g. *Lionesses first produce five young*, i. e. *each lioness produces*, — hence, *le aenae primo pariunt quinos fetus*; for it is not affirmed of all lionesses together, but only of *each* individually, and not of any definite one. If, on the contrary, it is affirmed of any single definite one, the cardinal is used, e. g. *This lioness produced five young, quinque fetus*. In the phrase, *This lioness produces six young, whereas they are wont to produce five*, — the number *six* must be expressed by *sex*, but the second number *five*, by *quinos*.

The distributive is generally used, when *each*, *every* or *always* is readily supplied by the mind, or is contained in the sentence; e. g. *The law (always) allows three hours to the (every) orator*, *ternae horas*; *the army in six divisions, went in turn every six hours into the battle*, *senis horis in orbem successit proelio*; *the laws prescribe three (ternos) sesterces as the highest for a meal, and thirty (tricenos) on holidays*, i. e. three for each, and thirty for each; *some continue in the course of instruction twenty (vicens annos) years*, i. e. each of the *some* do this; *the walk to the right and left is ten feet wide*, i. e. is always so, or each walk is so wide, *pedes lata denos*; *he made divisions on the shore*, *I know not of how many acres (each)*, *nescio quotenorum jugerum*; so the distributive is always used with numeral adverbs, e. g. *How much is twice two*, *quot sunt bis bina?*

(2) The distributives are used with substantives denoting time; e. g. *daily*, *every day*, *singulis diebus*; *hourly*, *every hour*, *singulis horis*; *yearly*, *singulis annis*. Yet, instead of this, in *horas*, *quot diebus*, *in dies*, *in annos*, *quotannis*, *omnibus annis*, *quot mensibus (every month)*, *monthly*, etc. So also the adjectives *quotidianus*, *diurnus*, *horarius*, *menstruus*, *anniversarius* have a distributive force.

(3) Distributives stand for the cardinal numbers with those substantives which are used in the plural and signify only a *single* thing, or with those substantives, whose plural has a different signification from the singular; e. g. *A letter*, *litterae*; *two letters*, *binae litterae*, (*duo litterae* being two letters of the alphabet); *a camp*, *castra*; *three camps*, *trinae castra* (*ternae castra* being each of three camps); *an army*, *copiae*; *two armies*, *binae copiae*; *two houses*, *binae aedes*; *two temples*, *duae aedes*. To these belong also *catenae*, *ludi* (public games), *gladiatores*, *molae* (a mill), etc. It is hence to be noticed, that the Latin here does not say, *terni*, but *trini*, *ae*, *a*,—*terni* retaining its distributive force; thus, *trinae litterae*, *trinae nuptiae*,

trini codicilli, and the like. So, not *singuli*,—*ae, a*, but *uni, ae, a*,—*singuli* also retaining its distributive force; e. g. *Une scalae, una castra*; and so also with *centesimae*, *the per cent.*; *binae cent.*, *two per cent.*; *trinae*, etc.

Examples on § 98—101.

(1) Ten men were appointed¹ to write² laws, who, after two years, proposed³ the twelve tables⁴. The Romans contended in Spain nearly⁵ two hundred years. If you^{*} add⁶ four pounds⁷ to seven, it makes⁸ eleven pounds; and if, from twenty-seven pounds, you subtract⁹ six, twenty-one remain¹⁰. If two hundred and forty-two years are added to three hundred and sixty-five, there is¹¹ a series¹² of six hundred and seven years. The emperor Tiberius died¹³ in the seventy-eighth year of his age, and in the twenty-third of his reign¹⁴, the sixteenth** of March, in the seven hundred and ninetieth of the city of Rome, and in the thirty-seventh year after the birth of Christ¹⁵. Mithridates, with three hundred and forty soldiers, conquered¹⁶ sixty thousand and two hundred of the enemy, by continual¹⁷ assaults¹⁸. King Crotimus, with seven hundred and thirty-three companions¹⁹ laid waste²⁰ all Egypt. The olive-tree²¹ bears²² every two years. Nero usually²³ gave the consulship for only six months. Turtle doves²⁴ usually lay²⁵ three eggs. Numantia, with four thousand Celiberians²⁶, withstood²⁷, fourteen years, an army of forty thousand men²⁸. In a battle of Alexander the Great against Darius, twenty-one thousand infantry²⁹ and ten thousand cavalry³⁰ were killed³¹. Archidamus in his will bequeathed³² to each of his friends five talents³³. Every five years the Olympic games³⁴ were celebrated³⁵ in Greece.

¹ creare. ² conscribēre (subj. with ut). ³ proponēre. ⁴ tabūla. ⁵ prope. * § 218. ⁶ addēre alicui. ⁷ libra. ⁸ confici. ⁹ deducēre. ¹⁰ reliqui fit summa (with the genitive). ¹¹ oriri. ¹² series. ¹³ mori. ¹⁴ imperium. ** septimus decimus Calendas Aprilis. ¹⁵ Christus natus (birth of Christ). ¹⁶ vincēre. ¹⁷ assidūus. ¹⁸ eruptio. ¹⁹ coines. ²⁰ vastare. ²¹ olēa. ²² ferre. ²³ plerumque. ²⁴ turtur. ²⁵ parēre. ²⁶ Celtiber, -éri. ²⁷ sustinēre. ²⁸ miles. ²⁹ pedes. ³⁰ eques. ³¹ occidēre. ³² legare. ³³ talentum. ³⁴ Olympia (the Olympic games). ³⁵ celebrare.

(2) Diodotus lived with Cicero in one house*. One thousand two hundred and seventy Numidian¹ and Spanish² knights revolted³ to Marcellus. In the battle near Cannae, forty thousand infantry, two thousand seven hundred cavalry,

and nearly as many⁴ allies⁵, were killed. Hannibal offered⁶ for⁷ each⁸ head, as⁹ the price¹⁰ of ransom¹¹, five hundred sesterces¹² for¹³ every knight, three hundred for every foot¹⁴ soldier, and one hundred for every slave¹⁵. I received¹⁶ three letters¹⁷ from you in one day. The Pythian¹⁸ games were celebrated, at first¹⁹, every nine years, afterwards²⁰, every four years. Christ was born²¹ one thousand eight hundred and forty-one years ago, in the seven hundred and fifty-fourth year after the building of Rome²². Caesar made²³ two²⁴ ditches²⁵, of twelve feet²⁶ each. An Arcadian²⁷ ass was sold²⁸, in Cicero's times, for²⁹ a thousand and sixty sesterces. Tiberius made³⁰ three classes of companions³¹, and gave to the first, six hundred sesterces, to the second, four hundred, and to the third, two hundred. Until³² the autumnal equinox³³, the hives³⁴ are to be opened³⁵ every ten days. In the Picene³⁶ district³⁷, a goat³⁸ produced³⁹ six kids⁴⁰ at one birth⁴¹; generally⁴² they produce only four.

* aedes. ¹ Numidicus. ² Hispanicus. ³ transire. ⁴ totidem (as many).
⁵ socius. ⁶ proponere. ⁷ in. ⁸ singuli. ⁹ (as is not expressed in Lat.).
¹⁰ pretium. ¹¹ redemptio. ¹² sestertius. ¹³ (dative). ¹⁴ pedes. ¹⁵ servus.
¹⁶ accipere. ¹⁷ litterae. ¹⁸ Pythia (Pythian games). ¹⁹ initium. ²⁰ postea.
²¹ nasci. ²² Roma condita (building of Rome). ²³ ducere. ²⁴ duplex.
²⁵ fossa. ²⁶ (genitive). ²⁷ Arcadius. ²⁸ vendere. ²⁹ (ablative). ³⁰ fa-
cere. ³¹ comes. ³² usque ad. ³³ autumni aequinoctium. ³⁴ alveus.
³⁵ aperire. ³⁶ Picenus. ³⁷ ager. ³⁸ capra. ³⁹ edere. ⁴⁰ hoedus. ⁴¹ uno
fetu. ⁴² alias.

PRONOUNS.

102. When it is said affirmatively in English, *This* is my father, or interrogatively, *Which* is my father? neither *hoc* nor *quid* can be used; but, in reference to the following *pater* (father)—*hic* and *qui* *est meus pater?* In Latin, the pronouns agree in gender, number and case with the following substantive. Hence, *That* is my mother, is expressed by, *illa mea est mater*; *what* is the cause of thy grief? *quaer est causa doloris tui*; I consider *this* true friendship, *hanc veram habeo amicitiam*. The neuter *what*, however, is translated by *quid*, when the property, essence and nature of a person or thing, is to be denoted; e. g. *He does not know what God is*, *quid Deus sit*; *what is the memory*, *quid est memoria?* *What else is philosophy?* *philosophia*

quid est aliud? So the negative *nihil aliud*, e. g. *History is nothing else, than, nihil aliud, nisi.*

103. On the contrary, when *qui*, *quae*, *quod* has, in its sentence, a substantive as its predicate, referring to itself, the pronoun is put in the gender and number, either of the preceding substantive, or the one following, though the last is more usual. This construction is particularly found with the verb *sum* and with verbs of *naming*, *calling* and *considering*, e. g. *dicere*, *vocare*, *appellare*, *nominare*, *habere*, *putare*, etc. Hence, *Summa pars coeli, qui (for quae) aether dicitur; venio ad Catonem, quod (for qui) est firmamentum—; domicilia conjuncta, quas (for quae) urbes dicimus.* Yet the pronoun might refer to the other noun.

Examples.

This is the nearest¹, and, as it were², the shortest³ way to renown. Both⁴ are wholly different⁵ opinions. What are the best writings⁶ of the ancients⁷? These are the best exercises⁸ of the mind⁹. It is an old question¹⁰, What is man? What is this¹¹ voluntary servitude¹²? This is the cause of the dissension¹³. Our ancestors¹⁴ regarded this as¹⁵ true riches, this as¹⁵ a good reputation¹⁶ and great renown¹⁷. The Germans¹⁸ are no longer¹⁹ the same²⁰, that they were before. What are now called cities, were formerly²¹ villages²². I am towards²³ you, what you are towards me. That which we find in ourselves, is the best remedy²⁴ for²⁵ troubles²⁶. No one can certainly²⁷ say, what the soul is. These are not the faults²⁸ of art, but of man. The study of wisdom, which is called²⁹ philosophy, is ancient. Philosophy, the mother of all arts, what else is she, than a gift of the gods? This shows that emotion³⁰ of the mind, which I call madness³¹.

¹ proximus. ² quasi (as it were). ³ compendiarius. ⁴ uterque. ⁵ diuersus (superlative). ⁶ scriptum. ⁷ veteres. ⁸ exercitatio. ⁹ ingenium. ¹⁰ quaestio. ¹¹ iste. ¹² servitus. ¹³ discordia. ¹⁴ majores. ¹⁵ (as is omitted). ¹⁶ fama. ¹⁷ nobilitas. ¹⁸ Germanus. ¹⁹ amplius. ²⁰ idem. ²¹ olim. ²² vicus. ²³ in. ²⁴ medicina. ²⁵ (genitive). ²⁶ labor. ²⁷ certe. ²⁸ vitium. ²⁹ dicere. ³⁰ concitatatio. ³¹ furor.

104. The pronouns, *my*, *thy*, *his*, *her*, *your*, *our*, *their*, are not expressed in Latin, if they are not contrasted with

others, and especially, if they refer to the subject of the sentence; e. g. *The righteous man is also happy in his death, in morte; all love him on account of his courtesy, propter humanitatem; I love my brother, as I ought, fratrem sic amo, ut debeo.* But if, on the contrary, they do not refer to the subject of the sentence, and there is an evident antithesis, and a particular emphasis is placed on the pronoun, or if indeed the word *own* is connected with the English pronoun, then it is expressed, and is generally placed before the substantive. But the word *own* is either not expressed at all in Latin, or, if so, by *ipsius*, and in the plural by *ipsorum*; e. g. *You prefer your interest to the public, tu tu a m utilitatem praepōnis publicae; I wrote this with my own hand, haec me a manu scripsi: this was written with his own hand, ipsius manu; in my opinion, this is worthy of praise, ad meum sensum; he killed his daughter with his own hand, su a manu; thy speech is evidence of this, oratio tu a,—*where the addition of the pronoun is not superfluous, although without emphasis, and hence it is placed after the substantive. And so the pronouns are often supplied, when the relation would be indefinite without them, even when they refer to the subject, e. g. *We are accustomed to send our children to the best teachers, liberos nostros.*

Examples.

I learned¹ this from thy letter. Pompey showed² his kindness³ towards⁴ us by every⁵ address⁶. The lion gently⁷ licked⁸ the feet of the man, and, according to the custom⁹ of fawning¹⁰ dogs, wagged his tail¹¹. If we raise¹² our eyes to heaven at night, we see the most beautiful spectacle. You read and love only¹³ your own writings, but the writings of others¹⁴ you despise¹⁵. We make our way through Italy. Who will judge¹⁶ of¹⁷ our disagreement¹⁸? I have received your letter, and was surprised that¹⁹ you wrote it with your own hand. Scipio exceeded²⁰ the highest²¹ expectation²² of his fellow-citizens²³. Oxen defend²⁴ themselves by their horns, wild-boars²⁵ by their tusks, and lions by their bite²⁶.

Romulus killed²⁷ his brother Remus. We speak of friends, who are not before our eyes. Cato bore²⁸ the death of his son calmly²⁹

¹ cognoscere. ² significare. ³ benevolentia. ⁴ in. ⁵ omnis. ⁶ oratio. ⁷ leniter. ⁸ demulcere. ⁹ ritu (according to custom). ¹⁰ adulans. ¹¹ cauda. ¹² tollere. ¹³ solum. ¹⁴ ceterus. ¹⁵ contemnere. ¹⁶ judicare. ¹⁷ de. ¹⁸ dissensio. ¹⁹ quod. ²⁰ superare. ²¹ suminus. ²² spes. ²³ civis. ²⁴ tutari. ²⁵ aper. ²⁶ morsus. ²⁷ interficere. ²⁸ ferre. ²⁹ equo animo.

105. Since the possessive pronouns take the place of the genitives of their personal pronouns *ego*, *tu*, etc. and consequently stand for *mei*, *tui*, etc., therefore every addition or explanation, which refers to the *ego*, *tu*, *ille*, *nos*, *vos*, *illi* contained in the possessives, is put in the genitive, and if possible, directly after the possessive; e. g. *an oration by me*, (*my oration*), is expressed by, *oratio mea*; *an oration by me, thy father*, *mea, patris tui, oratio*; *my own hand*, *mea ipsius manus*; *our own children*, *nostri ipsorum libetri*; *a fault of myself alone*, *meum solius vitium*; *this is the mistake of myself, who disclaim it*, *hic est meus error, negantis*. But when the word *all* is prefixed to or follows the words, *of us*, *of you*, *of them*, the Latin usually puts both in the genitive; e. g. *of all of us*, or *of us all*, *nostrum omnium*; *contrary to the expectation of all of us*, *praeter nostrum omnium (omnium nostrum) expectationem*, not *nostram omnium*. In all these examples, the genitives are in apposition or agree with the possessive pronouns, which contain the force of a genitive.

Examples.

I have done all for¹ my own sake². My name was a source of honor³ to him, while I was absent⁴, and now my prayers, when I am present⁵, have profited* him much. You have done this for your own sake only⁶. Our⁷ anxiety⁸, when we are absent⁹, is relieved¹⁰ by frequent¹¹ letters. I have undertaken¹² the journey for thy sake alone¹³. Camillus recounted¹⁴ the wars which had been carried on¹⁵ by¹⁶ the direction¹⁷ of himself alone¹⁸. Thou hast often seen my eyes, when I was weeping¹⁹. I perceived²⁰ thy zeal²¹ when²² thou wast a youth. The state is saved²³ by my efforts²⁴ alone. We have

disappointed²⁵ the expectation of all of you. You have exceeded²⁶ the expectation of us all. Our country is the common²⁷ parent²⁸ of us all.

¹ (ablative). ² causa ³ honor (dative, source of honor). ⁴ absens (while I was absent). ⁵ praesens. ⁶ prodesse. ⁷ (the possessive pronoun in Nom.). ⁸ desiderium. ⁹ absens. ¹⁰ lemire. ¹¹ creber. ¹² suscipere. ¹³ unus. ¹⁴ commemorare. ¹⁵ gerere. ¹⁶ sub. ¹⁷ auspicium. ¹⁸ solus. ¹⁹ flens (when I was weeping). ²⁰ perspicere. ²¹ studium. ²² adolescens (when thou —). ²³ salvus. ²⁴ opéra. ²⁵ fallere. ²⁶ surare. ²⁷ communis. ²⁸ parens.

106. *Quis, quid* is used when we speak of *more than two*; on the contrary, *uter, utra, utrum*, only when we speak of *two*; thus, *which of two*; e. g. *Virgil and Horace are great poets; which pleases you?* *uter tibi placet?* *Virgil, Horace and Tibullus are distinguished poets; which pleases you?* *quis tibi placet?* If, in these two questions, an adjective or an adverb occurs, the comparative is used with *uter*, because it speaks of but two (see § 87); but the superlative with *quis*, because it speaks of several, though where a comparison is made, the comparative degree must be used, even when the *who* or *what* does not refer to two substantives already named; e. g. *which (among two already named) pleases you more?* *uter tibi magis placet?* *Which (of these two) is the better?* *utrum est melius?* *Which (among more than two named) pleases you more?* *quis tibi maxime placet?* *Who is more eloquent than Demosthenes?* *quis Demosthene eloquentior?*

The same is true of *nullus* and *neuter*. *Nullus* refers to *more than two*, *neuter* to *two only*, and hence signifies *neither of two*. *Does Eutropius or Justin please you? neither pleases me, neuter mihi placet.* *Hast thou read a tragic poet of the Grecians? as yet, no one, adhuc nullum.*

Examples.

Lydus and Tyrrhenus determined by lot¹, which of² them should leave³ the country. Which do you consider⁴ the greatest general, Caesar, Scipio or⁵ Hannibal? Which do you consider the better orator, Cicero or Demosthenes?

Thou hast read two tragedies⁶ of Sophocles; which pleases you more? Epaminondas when* dying, asked⁷ which had conquered, the Thebans or Peloponnesians? These are the different⁸ opinions of Philosophers concerning⁹ the Deity; which seems to you the most reasonable? Which is the richer, he, who is rich in mind¹⁰, or he, who is rich in gold? Epicurus and Zeno are of different opinions respecting the highest good; but the opinions of neither please me. If thy neighbor¹¹ had a better farm¹² than thou hast, which farm wouldest thou prefer¹³? We here bring¹⁴ to you war and peace; which pleases you? The river Arar flows into the Rhone very¹⁵ gently¹⁶, so that it cannot be determined¹⁷ by the eye which way¹⁸ it flows. When Hercules saw two ways, the one¹⁹ of pleasure, and the other of virtue, he doubted²⁰ which it was better to enter²¹.

¹ sortiri (to determine by lot). ² ex. ³ relinquere. ⁴ ducere. ⁵ an. ⁶ tragœdia. ⁷ see § 79. 1. ⁷ interrogare. ⁸ diversus. ⁹ de. ¹⁰ mens. ¹¹ vicinus. ¹² fundus. ¹³ malle. ¹⁴ portare. ¹⁵ incredibilis. ¹⁶ lenitas. ¹⁷ judicare. ¹⁸ pars. ¹⁹ unus. ²⁰ dubitare. ²¹ ingrēdi.

107. The phrases, *and this too, and that too, and these too, and besides, and even*, which connect an important additional circumstance belonging to what precedes, especially an adjective with a foregoing substantive, are expressed in Latin by *et is, et hic, isque*; in like manner, *and at the same time, at once, and also*, are expressed by *et idem* or *idemque*. As pronouns, *is, hic* or *idem* must agree with their preceding substantives. But when they do not refer to a preceding substantive, but to the whole foregoing sentence, especially to the verb, they are put in the neuter singular; thus, *et id, idque, et idem*; e. g. *I have received a letter, and that too* (or *and that*) *a short one*, epistolam, eamque (et eam) brevem accēpi, or litteras, easque (et eas) breves accēpi. *He made use of historical illustrations, and besides* (or *and these too*) *beautiful ones*, exemplis, iisque illustribus. *Epicurus spent a happy, and at the same time, the last day of his life*, beatum et eundem supremum diem. *He accomplished his journey, and that too, in a short time*, cursum confecit, idque (et id) brevi tempore. But if the additional circumstance is *negative*, then, instead of *et* or *que*, the word

nec or *neque*, is used; e. g. *At length he sent me a letter, and that too, not a long one*, epistōlam, neque eam longam. The adverb *quidem* is often joined to the pronoun *is*; therefore, *et eas quidem breves; et eis quidem illustribus*.

Examples.

You sent me a single¹ book yesterday, and that too a bad one. We find, in most places of the earth, warm water, and that too in the winter. To philosophize² does not please^{*} some³, and those too, not very⁴ learned men. Pompey fought⁵ against Mithridates, and even with a small army⁶. The tyrant Alexander always had a barbarian⁷ with⁸ him and that too, tattooed with Thracian¹⁰ letters. In all the letters, which I sent to Caesar, I subjoined¹¹ a recommendation of you¹², and besides, no common¹³ one. Many bestow¹⁴ upon¹⁵ dark, and at the same time not necessary subjects¹⁶, much pains¹⁷. The mind has a recollection, and that too, unlimited¹⁸, of innumerable things. This food is the most delicious¹⁹ and also the most wholesome²⁰.

¹ unus. ² philosophari. ^{*} displicere (not to please). ³ quidam. ⁴ admōdum. ⁵ pugnare. ⁶ exercitus. ⁷ barbārus. ⁸ cum. ⁹ compunctus. ¹⁰ Threicūs. ¹¹ adjicēre. ¹² commendatio tui. ¹³ vulgaris. ¹⁴ con-ferre. ¹⁵ in. ¹⁶ res. ¹⁷ opéra. ¹⁸ infinitus. ¹⁹ suavis. ²⁰ saluber (salubris).

108. The reflexive pronouns, *sui*, *sibi*, *se* and *suus* must, according to their nature and signification, refer back to the subject or the most important word in the sentence; but the demonstrative pronoun, *is*, *ea*, *id*, does not refer to the subject, but to some other substantive.

The reflexive pronouns, *himself*, *herself*, *themselves*, etc. in their appropriate cases, are expressed by the reflexives *sui*, *sibi*, *se*, although the English does not always use a reflexive pronoun where the Latin does. This is particularly the case, in the construction of the Acc. with the Inf., when the Latin uses the reflexive; e. g. *my brother said that he would come*, frater dixit, se venturum esse. So also, the English generally use the personal pronoun without the reflexive form, where the Latin reflexive and the substantive to which it refers are in different clauses; e. g. *The general*

feared that the soldiers would desert him, dux metuebat, ne milites se desererent.

109. The reflexive pronouns *sui*, *sibi*, *se*, are used :

(1) When they refer to the subject of their own sentence ; e. g. *Phidias inclosed a form like himself in a shield, sui similem speciem. He mentioned the honor bestowed upon himself (sibi). They mentioned the honor bestowed upon themselves (sibi).*

110. (2) When the pronoun stands in a dependent sentence, and refers to the subject of the leading or principal sentence.

Dependent sentences are such as do not stand alone, but require some other sentence to precede them, which contains the principal verb or thought, to which the dependent sentence refers. Sentences denoting a purpose, object, or result, and introduced by *ut*, *that*, *in order that*, *ne*, *that not*, *in order that not*, *quo*, *in order that*, *and the like*, and also indirect questions, belong to dependent sentences. Sentences, likewise containing an Acc. with the Inf., are dependent.

111. In such dependent sentences, the Latins use the reflexive pronouns, when the pronouns refer to the person speaking or thinking, and he speaks or thinks of himself (*de se*) ; e. g. *Whoever believes, that he, (the one believing) can be unhappy, is not happy, se (not eum) posse misérum esse ; men do not often think, that evils can befall them (the men thinking), mala sibi (not eis) accidere posse ; Verres asked Dolabella, that he would send him (Verres speaking) to king Nicomedes, ut se (not eum) ad regem Nicomedem mitteret ; Cicero requested Pompey, that he would not demand this of him (the one requesting), ne hoc a se (not eo) postularet.*

From these examples it will be evident, that here the one speaking or thinking, always speaks or thinks of himself (*de se*).

(3) There are some instances in which one reflexive refers to the subject of the principal sentence, and another to the subject of the subordinate sentence ; e. g. *The Scythians re-*

quested Alexander to marry the daughter of their king; Seythaе petebant ab Alexandro, ut regis sui (sc. Scytharum) filiam matrimonio sibi (sc. Alexandro) jungeret.

112. When the dependent sentence has a subject, to which the reflexive pronoun might also be easily referred, the pronoun *ipse* can be employed to prevent this ambiguity, although in such cases, also, the reflexive is almost always used; e. g. *Jugurtha sent ambassadors to the consul to ask life for himself and his children; J. legatos ad consulem mittit, qui ipsi liberisque vitam peterent*, where *ipsi* can refer only to Jugurtha, whereas *sibi* might have referred to *legatos* also. On the contrary, *ipse* is often found where there is no ambiguity, since it always expresses the contrast more emphatically than the reflexive. Cicero uses this *ipse* in the intermediate clause, *as much as in his power*, *quantum in ipso est*, where others use in *se*.

113. On the contrary, the demonstrative *is*, *ea*, *id*, in its different cases, is used:

(1) When the pronouns in the leading and subordinate propositions, do not refer to the subject of these propositions; e. g. *Cicero promised all to him (ei); Laelius did everything for his sake (for the sake of another), eju s causa; Cicero left the city, when this had been announced to him (ei); Cicero, who was favorable to him (ei), defended him (eum)*. In the last two sentences, Cicero does not speak of himself, but another speaks of him.

114. (2) When the pronouns stand in dependent sentences and refer neither to the subject of these, nor to that of the leading sentence; e. g. *Cicero hereby showed that he (Galba) had been rash, eum (not se) vehementem fuisse; some one told Claudius, that the consulship would be offered to him, ei consulatum oblatum iri*. Here *sibi* could not properly be used, for the *some one*, does not speak of himself, but of Claudius. *Cicero spoke so convincingly, that every one believed him, ut ei quisque crederet, not sibi*, for Cicero does not say this of himself, but another says it.

115. From these examples it will be seen, that, even when, in intermediate and introductory sentences, the person of the leading sentence is spoken of, the reflexive cannot be used, if the person does not speak of himself (*de se*), but another speaks of him (*de eo*). There is a difference between the following examples: *Prusias said when Hannibal lived with him in exile—and Prusias said that when Hannibal lived with him in exile*. The first *with him* would be expressed by *apud eum*, for Prusias does not speak of himself; the

other by *apud se*, for here Prusias speaks of himself (*de se*). *Alexander was vexed, that the city Miletus obstructed him—and, Alexander was vexed, because the city Miletus obstructed him.* The former *him* is expressed by *sibi*, because Alexander there speaks of himself (*de se*); the latter *him* by *e i.* because it is only related of him (*eo*). *Cincinnatus was informed, that he (eum) had been appointed Dictator—and, Cincinnatus, heard that he (se) had been appointed Dictator.* And so in many subordinate clauses, the reflexive or demonstrative pronoun is used according as the sentiment expressed is that of the subject of the principal sentence, or that of the writer; e. g. Ambiorix, in *Aduaticeos, qui erant ejus regni finitimi, proficiuntur*; here the subordinate clause, *qui erant ejus r. f.*, contains a remark of the writer; yet the sentence could have been expressed as the sentiment of Ambiorix, and would then have been written *qui essent sui regni fin.*

Examples.

(1) Some¹ scholars do not care², that³ others are preferred⁴ to themselves; but others are unwilling⁵ that⁶ they should be surpassed⁷ by any. A judge casts⁸ his eyes upon the countenance⁹ of the accused¹⁰; and the fear and embarrassment¹¹ of the same, are to him the surest¹² proofs¹³ of the crime¹⁴ committed¹⁵. The tyrant Dionysius ordered¹⁶, that¹⁷ his daughters should burn¹⁸ off his beard. The Spartans feared, that¹⁹ king Philip would come upon them, and subjugate²⁰ them. Since you ask²¹ me concerning²² this orator, I will say to you, that²³ he was destitute²⁴ of many qualifications of an orator, although²⁵ he himself believed, that he had²⁶ all qualifications. The Allobroges (Allobrox) entreated²⁷ Umbrenus to²⁸ have pity on²⁹ them. Chabrias wished, that³⁰ a statue should be erected³¹ to him, in that posture³², in which he had gained³³ a victory. Dionysius entreated Damon and Phintias*, to³⁴ admit³⁵ him also, as³⁶ the third in friendship. We praise that youth, who, as much as³⁷ is in his power, strives³⁸ to be accomplished³⁹. Vespasian thanked⁴⁰ the Senate, that it had thought him worthy⁴¹ of the honor⁴² of a triumph. The same dreamt⁴³, before⁴⁴ the dignity of an emperor⁴⁵ had been conferred on him, that his fortune, and that of his friends, would begin, as soon as⁴⁶ a tooth of Nero had been extracted⁴⁷; and it truly⁴⁸ came to pass⁴⁹, that⁵⁰ the physician, on the following day, showed⁵¹ him a tooth, that moment⁵² extracted. Jugurtha admonishes⁵³ the soldiers to⁵⁴ defend him and his kingdom from the avarice of the Romans.

¹ quidam. ² nihil facere. ³ (acc. with inf.). ⁴ praeponere. ⁵ moleste ferre. ⁶ (acc. with inf.). ⁷ superare. ⁸ conjicere. ⁹ vultus. ¹⁰ reus. ¹¹ perturbatio. ¹² apertus. ¹³ indicium. ¹⁴ facinus. ¹⁵ commissus. ¹⁶ in-

stituere. ¹⁷ ut. ¹⁸ adurere. ¹⁹ ne. ²⁰ subigere. ²¹ rogare. ²² de. ²³ (acc. with inf.). ²⁴ deesse. ²⁵ quamvis (subj.). ²⁶ esse. ²⁷ orare. ²⁸ ut. ²⁹ misereri (to have pity on). ³⁰ ut. ³¹ facere. ³² status. ³³ adipisci. * Phintias, ae. ³⁴ ut. ³⁵ adscribere ³⁶ (*es* is omitted). ³⁷ quantum (as much as). ³⁸ studere. ³⁹ perfectus. ⁴⁰ gratias agere. ⁴¹ dignari (to think worthy). ⁴² (ablative). ⁴³ somniare. ⁴⁴ priusquam. ⁴⁵ dignitas imperatoria. ⁴⁶ simulac (as soon as). ⁴⁷ eximere. ⁴⁸ vere. ⁴⁹ evenire (to come to pass). ⁵⁰ ut. ⁵¹ ostendere. ⁵² tantum quod (that moment). ⁵³ monere. ⁵⁴ ut.

(2) All commanders cannot call to mind¹ wars successfully² carried on³ by themselves. Cicero, from the beginning of his consulship, had taken care⁴ that⁵ Curius should betray⁶ to him the plans⁷ of Catiline. Angry⁸ men have no control⁹ of themselves; hence Alexander, while angry, put to death Clitus who was most dear to him. A fugitive¹⁰ of king Pyrrhus came to the camp of Fabricius, and promised¹¹ him, if he would offer¹² him a reward¹³, that¹⁴ he would return to the camp of Pyrrhus, and destroy¹⁵ him with poison¹⁶. And truly¹⁷, this man did not foresee¹⁸, that¹⁹ Fabricius would cause²⁰ him to be led back²¹. The Syracusians entreated, that²² they might be pardoned²³ because²⁴ they had not yet given thanks²⁵ for the favors²⁶ shown²⁷ to them. The senators exclaimed²⁸, that²⁹ justice and freedom were snatched³⁰ from them, and the Roman citizens entreated me, not³¹ to withdraw³² from them. Nevertheless³³, I could not promise them this. Show³⁴ them the folly³⁵ of their resolution³⁶, in order that³⁷ they may understand³⁸ how³⁹ destructive⁴⁰ it may be to them.

¹ recordari. ² bene. ³ gestus. ⁴ efficere. ⁵ ut. ⁶ prodere. ⁷ consilium. ⁸ iratus. ⁹ esse compos (to have control of). ¹⁰ perfuga. ¹¹ polliceri. ¹² proponere. ¹³ praemium. ¹⁴ (acc. with inf.). ¹⁵ tollere. ¹⁶ venenum. ¹⁷ vere. ¹⁸ divinare. ¹⁹ (acc. with inf.). ²⁰ curare. ²¹ reducendum. ²² ut. ²³ ignoscere (see § 220). ²⁴ quod. ²⁵ gratias agere. ²⁶ beneficium. ²⁷ tributus. ²⁸ clamare. ²⁹ (acc. with inf.). ³⁰ eripere. ³¹ ne (not to). ³² discedere. ³³ neque tamen (nevertheless—not). ³⁴ ostendere. ³⁵ stultitia. ³⁶ consilium. ³⁷ ut (in order that). ³⁸ intelligere. ³⁹ quam. ⁴⁰ pernici osus.

The pronouns *his*, *her*, *its*, *their*, and the Latin *suus*, *a*, *um*, and *eius*, *eorum*, and *earum*.

116. The pronoun *suus*, *a*, *um*, (his, her, its, their) is an adjective, which must agree in gender, number and case, with the substantive to which it belongs; but the other words, *eius* (his, her, or of him, of her), *eorum* and *earum*, (their, or of them), are the genitives of *is*, and in Latin, do not qualify substantives, but, as genitives, are governed by them.

As the English words *his*, *her*, *its*, *their*, have a double sense, viz. a reflexive and demonstrative, there is, consequently, some difficulty in translating them into Latin. When I say, Cicero was accustomed to write down *his orations*, *his* would be expressed by *suas*; but when I say, I am accustomed to note *his orations*, *his* is expressed by *eius*. *His*, in the first example, is reflexive, in the second, demonstrative.

Hence, for the sake of a more clear distinction, it may be observed, that the words *his*, *her*, *its*, *their*, are to be translated by *suus*, *a*, *um*:

117. (1) When the pronoun refers to the subject of its own sentence; e. g. *But a very small part of mankind know their own faults and vices*, *suos errores ac vitia*; *most men do not know their vices*, *sua vitia*; *they guard the life of their king*, *regis sui vitam*; *he considers me the first of his defenders*, *suorum defensorum principem*; *many love us for the sake of their own advantage*, *sui commodi causa*. *His*, *her* and *their* are often so emphatic, that the word *own* stands with them; this is not translated into Latin by any corresponding word, but is expressed by placing *suus* before the substantive,—for when it is placed after, it is often used without emphasis, merely to prevent ambiguity.

118. (2) When the pronoun stands in a dependent sentence, and refers to the subject of the leading sentence. Compare the remarks above, § 110 and 111. What was there said, is applicable here also. When the words *his*, *her*, *their*, in a dependent sentence, refer to the subject of the leading sentence, and that subject speaks or thinks of itself (*de se*), i. e. when the sentiment expressed is that of the subject, they must be translated by *suus*; e. g. *The Macedonians hope, that you will be their king*, *te regem suum fore*; *Philodemus commanded this to be announced to his son*, *ut hoc filio suo nuntiaretur*; *Horatius confessed, that his sister was slain by his hand*, *sua manu sororem (suum) intersectam esse*; *It is pleasing to him* (i. e. he rejoices), *that his praise is spread abroad*, *jucundum ei est, suam laudem proferri*.

When a dependent sentence has for its subject a personal substantive, and consequently the use of *suis* might cause ambiguity, then, instead of *suis*, the genitives *ipsius* or *ipsorum* (*ipsarum*) are substituted; e. g. *The Macedonians entreated Cicero to defend their cause, ut causam ipsorum* (for *suam*) tueretur. *Suam* would not have been incorrect, but a little ambiguous, as it might refer to Cicero. Still, even then, the ancients used *suis* almost wholly. Hence, when the subjects of the principal and subordinate sentences are different, only the connection can determine, to which of the subjects the reflexive refers; e. g. in the following sentences, the reflexive can refer either to *Caesar* or to *Milites*: *Caesar milites hortatur, ut de salute sua acriter dimicarent*;—*Caesar speravit, milites de salute sua acriter dimicatuos esse*.

The nature of the connective particle, also, by which two substantives are united, determines which of the pronouns is to be used; e. g. *dux ejusque exercitus capti sunt*, for by *quaes* or *et* two clauses independent of each other are connected; but *dux cum suo exercitus captus est*, for by *cum*, the idea expressed by *exercitus* is connected with that expressed by *dux*. The first construction is *coordinate*, the second, *subordinate*. So, *Isocrates et discipuli ejus adfuerunt*, but *Isoc. cum discipulis suis adfuit*.

119. (3) When the pronoun with its substantive refers to another subordinate substantive, (i. e. a substantive in an oblique case) in the same sentence; e. g. *His lusts enticed Verres to conduct shamefully, Verrem suae libidines flagitiose facere admonebant; rubbers waylaid the consul at his own house, consuli domi suae; you deprive this discourse of its ornament, suo ornato*.

120. (4) When the pronoun stands in a sentence containing a general truth; e. g. *It is good to know one's own vices, bellum est sua vitia nosse*. It would be properly expressed by *aliquem* (that one) *sua vitia nosse*. Therefore it strictly belongs to No. (1).

121. On the contrary, the genitives *eius*, *eorum* and *earum* are used, where there is no such reference, either to the subject of their own, or to that of the leading sentence, and therefore where a person does not speak and think of himself; e. g. *Verres is led to a certain Janitor, and his companions to others, comitesque ejus ad alios; some live in such a manner, that their life contradicts their profession, ita vivunt quidam, ut eorum vita refellat (eorum) orationem. You grieve on account of the death of your brother. Think*

of his modesty, and all his words and actions, cogita ejus modestiam et omnia ejus dicta et facta.

It will be seen from these passages, that *his, her, their*, are expressed by *ejus, eorum* and *earum*, when their sentences do not depend on each other. This will be evident from comparing the different ways by which the following sentence can be expressed: *Verres believed that an inheritance had fallen to him, because Antiochus had come into his kingdom.* The last clause can be expressed in Latin in two ways. First by, *quod Antiochus in ejus regnum venerat*; second by, *quod Antiochus in suum regnum venisset*. In the first, *ejus* is used, because the sentence is not dependent on the preceding; *Verres* does not speak of himself. In the other, *suum*, because the sentence is dependent on the preceding; *Verres* himself speaks of *his own (suo) kingdom*. So also in the following sentence: *The Aetolians were grieved, because the Romans were not thus disposed toward their people.* The phrase, *toward their people*, is either, *erga sua m gentem*, or *erga eorum gentem*, according as the Aetolians are considered as speaking of themselves, or some one else of them.

Examples.

(1) When king Astyages was angry¹ with² Harpagus, he killed³ his son. Whoever values little⁴ his own estate⁵, will value still⁶ less the estate of others. Lucullus was the richest man in Rome; but his wealth⁷ is differently⁸ estimated⁹. Those who cannot subdue¹⁰ their passions¹¹, are seduced¹² into evil deeds; but when we afterwards¹³ hear their complaints¹⁴, they cast¹⁵ the blame¹⁶, not upon their passions, but upon some other things¹⁷. The Corinthians presented¹⁸ Alexander the Great with the freedom of their state¹⁹; but he derided²⁰ their gift²¹. In Homer, the aged Nestor proclaimed²² his own virtues,—and^{*} he does not seem²³ to be too loquacious²⁴, for his speech²⁵ flows²⁶ from²⁷ his tongue sweeter than honey. The general and all his troops were taken captive by the enemy. I saw Isocrates with his disciples.

¹ iratus. ² (dative). ³ interficere. ⁴ parvi facere (to value little). ⁵ res familiaris. ⁶ minilo. ⁷ divitiae. ⁸ varie. ⁹ tradere. ¹⁰ domare. ¹¹ animi commotio. ¹² inducere. ¹³ postea. ¹⁴ querela. ¹⁵ transferre. ¹⁶ culpa. ¹⁷ res. ¹⁸ donare aliquem re (to present some one with something). ¹⁹ jus civitatis (freedom of the state). ²⁰ irridere. ²¹ donum. ²² praedicare. ^{*} nec (and—not). ²³ vidéri. ²⁴ loquax. ²⁵ oratio. ²⁶ fluere. ²⁷ ex.

(2) Let the virtues be most desired¹ by man, because their pleasure is permanent². When Alcibiades was thrown out³ unburied⁴, a friend covered⁵ his body with his mantle⁶. Most men do not know⁷ their faults, but when they judge⁸ concerning their enemies, they believe, that^{*} they know their

faults best. Kleobis and Biton were sons of a priestess⁹. When their mother could not be carried¹⁰ to the temple, because^{**} the cows delayed¹², they laid aside¹³ their garments¹⁴ and carried their mother to the temple. Verres brought¹⁵ home the young¹⁶ and beautiful¹⁷ of¹⁸ the pirates¹⁹, who had been taken, and, in their place²⁰, Roman citizens were executed²¹. A good father believes, that²² nothing must be neglected in respect to²³ his son; hence²⁴, his education²⁵ and the formation of his character²⁶ are his greatest solicitude²⁷.

¹ exoptatus. ² perpetius. ³ projicere. ⁴ inhumatus. ⁵ tegere. ⁶ palium. ⁷ novisse. ⁸ judicare. ⁹ (aco. with inf.). ¹⁰ vehi. ¹¹ bos. ¹² ob. ¹³ morans. ¹⁴ ponere. ¹⁵ vestis. ¹⁶ abducere. ¹⁷ adolescens. ¹⁸ formosus. ¹⁹ ex. ²⁰ pirata. ²¹ locus. ²² necare. ²³ (acc. with inf.). ²⁴ in (in respect to). ²⁵ quare. ²⁶ educatio. ²⁷ formatio (formation of character). ²⁷ maxime esse cordi (to be his greatest solicitude).

122. The English pronouns, *some one*, *any one*, and in the neuter, *something*, *anything*, are expressed in Latin by *aliquis*, *quis*, *quisquam* or *ullus*. *Aliquis* has an affirmative sense, and denotes some person or thing indefinitely known, and the neuter *aliquid* and *aliquod*, something indefinitely known. *Aliquis* is also used in the sense of the English *somebody*, to denote a person of distinction; so *aliquid*, *something*.

But *quis*, *quisquam* and *ullus*, have, as it were, a negative sense, and hence, they are used, sometimes in sentences which contain a negative, and sometimes in questions which imply a negative.

Some examples: *I do not wish, that any one should depart in sadness from me*, nolo quemquam, for neminem. *Take care not to trust any one*, cave cuiquam. *Who is it, that fears anything?* quis est, qui quidquam timeat? *When nothing was written to me, either by you or any one else*, abullo alio quidquam scriberetur, instead of which Cicero elsewhere says, quum nihil mihi neque a te ipso, neque abullo alio scriberetur. *Just as if any one of us believes this, quasi quisquam.* Without virtue we cannot secure friendship, nor anything desirable, neque ullam rem. *Thou canst prefer him without the censure of any one*, sine cuiusquam reprehensione. *Who has esteemed any one (quemquam) so highly as I have Pompey?* Hence, and no one, neque quisquam, and nothing, neque quidquam.

It is otherwise in the following sentences. Every body is either water or air, or something, which is composed of these or some part of them, aut aliquid, quod est concretum ex his, aut ex aliqua

parte eorum. *We are offended with actors, as soon as any of the pleasure is diminished, simulatque imminuitur aliquid de voluptate,* (any, *aliquid*, even a little). *This happened to us first, and never to any one else, nec alicui unquam,* where *alicui*, as is often the case, stands in the definite signification of *any one else*, for *nulli, alii* or *alii cuiquam*.

It is further to be observed, that after the words, *si, nisi, num, ne, an, quo, quando*, etc., *quis* and *quisquam* are mostly used to denote only something general and indefinite, and *aliquis*, only something definite and limited. So *alicubi* and *aliquando* are definite, *cubi in sicubi*, and *quando* after *si* and others, are indefinite and general. Hence *si quando* signifies *if ever, whenever, when* indefinite, i. e. it can refer to any time; *si aliquando, if at some time, at some certain time*, which refers either to a past or a future time; *si quis, if any one, if one; si aliquis, if some one; ne quis, that no one, that one may not—is general; ne aliquis, that some one may not—is limited.* The following examples will illustrate this:

If any one (if one) on a walk muses on a place or thinks attentively of anything else, si quis—meditetur, aut si quid aliud cogitet. An affection is produced, when we have found some one, whose character harmonizes with our own, si aliquem nacti sumus. If we, by our labor, have added anything to the praise of oratory, si aliquid oratoriae laudi attulimus. If any misfortune befalls you, si quid tibi adversi accidit. If ever a friend has saved another, who does not praise him, si quando amicus —. A spacious house, if it stand empty, is a reproach to its possessor, especially if it was once much frequented, while another possessed it, et maxime si aliquando. Did any one ever give thanks to the gods, because he —, num quis gratias egit —? If any one was a wise man, he was that man, si quisquam, ille sapiens fuit.

Examples.

Pompey obtained¹ the highest² dignity³ without any recommendation⁴ of his ancestors⁵. In all these narrations, there is⁶ a certain⁷ hue* of truth, without any embellishment⁸. Take care⁹ not to¹⁰ do anything else, than what I command you. No one** can be named¹¹, more friendly¹² to my welfare¹³ and honor, than you. I may not write to you immediately¹⁴, unless perchance¹⁵ something new¹⁶ occurs¹⁷. The pirates¹⁸ entered¹⁹ the harbor²⁰ without any fear²¹. I do not believe, that²² anything has been omitted²³ in this discourse,

which belongs²⁴ to the subject. Neither this nor that can happen²⁵ to²⁶ any one of us. If any one (definite) had killed²⁷ a tyrant, he was praised by the Greeks and Romans. It is contrary to nature, to take²⁸ anything from another. Does any one deny²⁹ this? Alexander seems to be somebody.

¹ adipisci. ² supērus. ³ honor. ⁴ commendatio. ⁵ major. ⁶ inesse. ⁷ quidam. ⁸ color. ⁹ fucus. ¹⁰ ne (not to, with subj.). ¹¹ (§ 527). ¹¹ dicere. ¹² amīcus. ¹³ salus. ¹⁴ statim. ¹⁵ forte. ¹⁶ (genitive). ¹⁷ accidēre. ¹⁸ pirāta. ¹⁹ penetrare. ²⁰ portus. ²¹ metus. ²² (acc. with inf.). ²³ praetermittēre. ²⁴ pertinēre. ²⁵ cadēre. ²⁶ in. ²⁷ occidēre. ²⁸ detrahēre. ²⁹ negare (*num* is to be placed before the pronoun.)

123. The pronouns *he*, *she*, *it*, *these*, *those*, (*is*, *ea*, *id*) are often omitted in Latin before the pronouns *who*, *which*, (*qui*, *quae*, *quod*). This omission occurs, when the pronoun has no special emphasis; it takes place most frequently, when the relative clause stands first, or when the omitted demonstrative denotes some indefinite object, and has the sense of *aliquis*, or when the relative *qui* can be resolved into *si quis*, and also particularly where the relative and antecedent are in the same case; *quis* (for *quibus*) *opes nullae sunt*, (*i i*) *bonis* *invident*.—Utile est, uti motu animi, *qui* (= *si quis*) *uti ratione non potest*; e. g. *He, who loves virtue, is dear to me*, *qui virtutem amat, mihi carus est*. *I have seen those whom you expect*, *vidi, quos tu exspectas*. Yet where definiteness is required, the pronoun must be expressed.

124. The Latins sometimes put the antecedent and the relative in the same clause, and instead of saying: *The letters which you sent me are short*, they say, *what letters you sent me, these are short*, *quaes epistolas mihi misisti, eae breves sunt*. *I meet you in the place, in which you wish*, *quo loco vis, eo te convenio*. Thus the substantive is attracted to the relative, and is put in the same case with it. Before the principal clause, which stands after the other, *is*, *ea*, *id*, or *idem* referring to that clause, is usually placed, as the above examples show, viz. *eae* and *eo*; the pronoun, however, is often omitted, when it is not emphatic; e. g. *urbem quam statuo, vestra est*.

This mode of construction and agreement must always be adopted, when a substantive, to which *qui*, *quae*, *quod* refers, stands alone, and is in apposition with another; e. g. *Mummius destroyed Corinth, a city, which, at that time, was the most magnificent in Greece*, *quaे urbs* (*not urbem quae*) *tum amplissima Graeciae erat*. *A state, which, quaе civitas*; *a place, which, qui locus*; *everything, which, quaе omnia, quae res omnes*; *at the time when, quo tempore*; *Alexander died in his thirty-third year, at an age, which, quaе aetas, not aetate, quae*. The adjective, also, is sometimes put in the relative clause, and made to agree with the relative, instead of with the substantive to which the relative refers, e. g. *veniat Caesar cum copiis, quas habet firmissimas*.

Examples.

The money, which we have borrowed¹ from others, cannot be called ours. Those evils, which we suffer² with many, seem to us lighter³. The year in which Tarquinus Superbus was banished⁴ from Rome, the Athenians banished Hippias. The herbs⁵, which the flocks⁶ do not eat⁷, men often eat. The men, whom you commended, are worthy of⁸ commendation. The expectation, which you have raised⁹ of¹⁰ yourself, is great. I live content¹¹ with that lot¹² which I have chosen¹³ for myself. The Germans abandoned the booty¹⁴ which they had obtained¹⁵. A thought¹⁶, which lessens¹⁷ all trouble¹⁸. Verres sends to king Antiochus to ask for those most beautiful vases, which he had seen.

¹ *mutuari*. ² *pati*. ³ *levis*. ⁴ *expellere*. ⁵ *herba*. ⁶ *pecora*. ⁷ *edere*.
⁸ (ablative). ⁹ *concitare*. ¹⁰ *de*. ¹¹ *contentus*. ¹² *sors*. ¹³ *dare*. ¹⁴ *praeda*. ¹⁵ *nancisci*. ¹⁶ *cogitatio*. ¹⁷ *extenuare*. ¹⁸ *molestia*.

125. The pronouns *that* and *those*, followed by a substantive governed by the preposition *of*, are expressed in Latin by *hic* or *ille* referring to a person or thing before named, or to a place, when that substantive does not denote a second person or thing contrasted with a preceding one. Sometimes instead of the pronouns *hic* or *ille*, the substantive itself is repeated; e. g. *Virtue seeks no other reward, than that* (*prae-*

ter hanc) of praise and renown. (He had before spoken of this). Not only is all arrogance hateful, but that of genius and eloquence is by far the most offensive, cum omnis arrogantia odiosa est, tum illa in geni, atque eloquentiae; there is no speed which can compare with the speed of the mind, nulla est celeritas, quae possit cum animi celeritate contendere.

But often both the pronouns *hic*, *ille* and the substantive itself are omitted before the genitive. This takes place, when the genitive is contrasted with a preceding genitive. But in English we must often supply, *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*; e. g. *I prefer the art of memory to that of forgetfulness, memoriae artem, quam oblivionis malo; the lineaments of the mind are more beautiful than those of the body, animi linamenta sunt pulchiora, quam corporis.* Comp. Rams-horn's Lat. Gram. p. 317.

Examples.

The letters of Cicero are more frequently¹ read than those of Pliny. The name of Themistocles is more renowned², than that of Solon. There are three kinds³ of blessings; the greatest are those of the mind⁴, the second those of the body, and the third external⁵. In Gaul there are two kinds of honorable⁶ men, one that of the Druids⁷, the other that of the knights. The diseases of the mind are more dangerous than those of the body. Publius Considius had been in the army⁸ of Sulla, and afterwards in that of Marcus Crassus. I can find no more beautiful⁹ saying¹⁰, than that of Seneca. The life of a man is not preserved¹¹, as that of a vine¹² and a tree. This letter is not that of a counsellor¹³, but that of a petitioner¹⁴. The body of a sleeper lies¹⁵ like that of a dead man.

¹ creber. ² illustris. ³ genus. ⁴ animus. ⁵ externus. ⁶ honoratus.
⁷ Druida. ⁸ exercitus. ⁹ praestans. ¹⁰ dictum. ¹¹ conservare. ¹² vitis.
¹³ suasor. ¹⁴ rogator. ¹⁵ jacere.

126. The pronouns *he himself*, *she herself*, *this* or *that one himself*, etc. and also the neuters, *this* or *that* thing itself, are expressed in Latin by *ipse ille*, *ipse hic*, or also by *ille ipse*, *hic ipse*; but even *he*, *this* or *that* very person or thing is expres-

sed only by *hic ipse*, *ille ipse* not *ipse ille*. These two, therefore, must not be confounded with each other; *The self-same Gorgias (or Gorgias himself) professes in that very book of Plato*, *ipse ille Gorgias in illo ipso Platonis libro*. With other pronouns also, *very* or *even* are expressed by *ipse*, but it is always placed *after* the other pronoun.

Examples.

'Thou hast attributed¹ something to Epicurus, which was never said by himself. This very thing, which you write to me, has been most pleasing to me. If any one has been seized² with a bloody³ sword⁴, in the very place where a murdered man⁵ lies⁶, suspicion will fall on him. What can be found which is more repugnant to itself⁷ even. Timoleon performed⁸ the most successful acts⁹ on his very birth-day¹⁰. This very thing, to do nothing and to be wholly* inactive¹¹, delights¹² me. Those very men, who are devoted¹³ to the pursuits of science¹⁴ and wisdom, employ¹⁵ their knowledge for¹⁶ the benefit of men. This is the very thing which is called useful.

¹ attribuēre. ² comprehendēre. ³ cruentus. ⁴ gladius. ⁵ occīsus. ⁶ ja-
cēre. ⁷ sibi repugnare. ⁸ gerēre. ⁹ res. ¹⁰ dies natalis. ^{*} plane. ¹¹ ces-
sare. ¹² delectare. ¹³ deditus (see § 79). ¹⁴ intelligentia. ¹⁵ conferre.
¹⁶ ad.

127. The pronoun *ipse* in different sentences can express different relations.

It usually stands as the antithesis of, or in contrast with, *another person or thing, or even several*. A different case is used, according to the difference of the antithesis. If the antithesis is in the nominative, and consequently the subject of the sentence or the actor is to be considered antithetic, rather than the object to which the action is directed, the pronoun is in the nominative. If, on the contrary, the antithesis is in an oblique case, (in the genitive, dative, accusative or ablative,) and the word *self* refers to the person or thing to which the action is directed, and if it is also the same as is contained in the subject, and consequently the same person as the actor, the word *ipse* stands in the oblique case. If, e. g. it is said, *Know thyself*, and the meaning is,

do you yourself, and *no other one*, know and examine yourself, then the word *self* refers to the subject, and stands in the nominative, and the idea is expressed by *nosce te ipse* or *ipse te nosce*; but if the meaning is *know yourself, your own self*, and *no other one*, then it refers to the accusative *te*, and is expressed by *nosce te ipsum*. Further; the phrases, *mihi ipse faveo*, and *mihi ipsi faveo*, have different meanings. In the first, the speaker contrasts himself with *others*, who do not favor him, hence *ipse*; in the second, with *others*, whom he does not favor, hence *ipsi*. Further; *scribam ipse de me*, or *scribam de me ipso*; in the first case, *he himself* will do it, no other one shall do it; in the second case, he will make *himself* and no other one the object of his writing, i. e. he *will write of himself alone*. The connection, therefore, must always determine to whom the speaker refers the pronoun.

In the phrase *by himself, herself, itself, ipse* always belongs to the subject, therefore *per se ipse*, or *ipse per se*. And so in classical writers the nominative is often used, where, on account of a possible and conceivable contrast, the case of the other pronoun connected with it, might be expected. On the contrary, in connection with *egomet—tumet*—through all the cases, the strengthening *ipse* is put in the same case with these; therefore, *egomet ipse, mihi met ipsi, memet ipsum, nobis met ipsis*, etc.

Examples.

Nero was accustomed to proclaim¹ himself the conqueror, in the sacred² contests³, not the public crier*. If we do not persuade** you to write⁴ our exploits⁵, we will write ourselves. Pardon⁶ me, if I say⁷ something of myself. If I deplore⁸ the neglect⁹ of eloquence, I seem to complain¹⁰ of myself. Justice must be honored, in order that we may be pleasing to ourselves and the immortal gods. If we praise ourselves, it is not necessary¹¹ that others should praise us; but if we censure¹² ourselves, it is also proper¹³ to censure others. One¹⁴ of the vestals¹⁵ killed herself. That is the best remedy¹⁶ in trouble¹⁷, which we find in ourselves. Virtue has so great

strength¹⁸, that she can protect¹⁹ herself. That man is wise²⁰ to no purpose²¹, who cannot benefit²² himself. I esteem²³ myself more²⁴ daily²⁵, since²⁶ you began²⁷ to esteem me. There are none, who hate²⁸ themselves. I say all these things, partly²⁹ for myself, partly for you and others. I, who encourage³⁰ you, cannot encourage myself. Caesar must fall³¹, either by his enemies³², or by himself. Lentulus, whom I prefer³³ to all and to myself, did not think otherwise³⁴.

¹ pronuntiari. ² sacer. ³ certamen. ⁴ praeco. ⁵ impetrare (fut. perfect). ⁶ scribere. ⁷ res gesta. ⁸ ignoscere. ⁹ praedicare. ¹⁰ deplorare. ¹¹ intermissio. ¹² queri. ¹³ necesse esse (followed by subjunctive without *ut*). ¹⁴ reprehendere. ¹⁵ licere. ¹⁶ alter. ¹⁷ Vestalis. ¹⁸ medicina. ¹⁹ labor. ²⁰ vires. ²¹ tueri. ²² sapere. ²³ nequidquam. ²⁴ prodesse. ²⁵ facere. ²⁶ pluris. ²⁷ quotidie. ²⁸ ex quo. ²⁹ coepisse. ³⁰ odisse (subjunct.). ³¹ partim. ³² confirmare. ³³ corruere. ³⁴ adversarius. ³⁵ anteponere.

(B.) PARTICULAR RULES.

I. *Government of the Cases of declinable words.*

128. It has already been shown, in the first Part, that the different cases of declinable words depend mostly on words which are in the same sentence. Sometimes the cases are dependent upon substantives, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, adverbs and prepositions; sometimes the case is determined by a particular thought, which is to be expressed. But since there is a marked difference, in the two languages, in respect to what the different words govern, it is important to be able to understand the principal points of difference. The order of the cases will be followed.

THE NOMINATIVE.

129. The nominative case is either the *subject* or the *predicate* of a sentence.

In stating the subject, the English seldom differs from the Latin, because the subject, consequently the nominative, remains in most instances, the same as in English, and is used for the subject in the nominative. There is a difference, how-

ever, where the Latin employs the accusative with the infinitive, which becomes the nominative in English, and also where a phrase is changed, because a verb, wholly different from the one in Latin, is used, e. g. when the verb *to have* is expressed by *esse*, compare § 172. a, often also with impersonal verbs, see § 189 and § 220.

The two languages more frequently differ in stating the predicate. A certain class of verbs, of themselves, give only an imperfect idea, which is completed by the addition of a definite predicate or explanatory word, which may be a substantive or an adjective. As the predicate is in the same case as the object of which it is predicated, it must be in the nominative, since it is the predicate of the subject. In English this predicate sometimes stands simply as a nominative, e. g. *Hercules* became a *demi-god*; sometimes also it is preceded by an explanatory word, e. g. *as, for* — which explanation the Latin omits; e. g. Brutus was given him *for* or *as* a companion (*comes*); Claudia was known *as* the most chaste (*castissima*). Of this class of verbs are *esse, fieri, evadere, reddi, creari, nominari, haberi*, and many others similar, which express but an incomplete idea. That the word added to the subject and defining it more clearly, is its predicate, is evident from the fact, that the subject and predicate can be united; for when Cicero was chosen consul, he was the *Consul Cicero*. Explanatory adjectives are to be considered in the same manner; as, *My brother has arrived safe, a l-v u s.*

When such a phrase as the following is used, viz. *Virtue is seldom taken for what it really is*, we must refer to § 103, according to which, it must be expressed, *Raro virtus (e s) habetur, quae revera est, not id quod.* The nominative is rarely used in exclamations, these being oftener expressed by the accusative; e. g. *O magna vis veritatis, quae facile se per se ipsa defendat.*

Examples.

Many dreams¹ prove² true. No one is born rich. The Chinese³ have become wiser by the instructions⁴ of Confucius. Scipio was chosen⁵ as a commander against Hannibal. Virtue

is justly considered⁶ as the greatest good, and vice the greatest evil. Everything earthly⁷ must be considered weak⁸ and perishable⁹. Brutus and Tarquinius Collatinus were appointed¹⁰ the first consuls of Rome. Those who are honored¹¹, seem happy, but those unhappy¹², who are without honor¹³. This whole¹⁴ world must be considered as a common state of gods and men. The poets were always considered by the ancients as sacred¹⁵, and were so¹⁶ called. That which at first was considered by me as joy, afterwards proved¹⁷ the greatest destruction¹⁸. We are seldom taken for what we really¹⁹ are.

¹ somnium. ² fieri. ³ Chinensis. ⁴ praecepta. ⁵ eligere. ⁶ existimare. ⁷ terrestris. ⁸ caducus. ⁹ fragilis. ¹⁰ creare. ¹¹ honoratus. ¹² miser. ¹³ inglorius. ¹⁴ universus. ¹⁵ sanctus. ¹⁶ (so is omitted). ¹⁷ existere. ¹⁸ exitium. ¹⁹ revera.

130. *Opus est.*

When *to be in need of* or *to be necessary*, is expressed by *opus esse*, in English, the person or thing in need of something is put in the nominative, and the thing needed, in the accusative (objective) after the verb or a preposition. But in Latin, the former is put in the dative, and the latter in the nominative or ablative, more frequently in the ablative. When the nominative is used, the verb *esse* depends upon it, and must agree with it in number. But when the ablative is used, the verb is impersonal, and stands without a subject, and only in the singular; e. g. *I need aid*, *m i h i opus est auxiliu m* or *auxilio*; *I need guards*, *m i h i opus sunt custodes*, or *m i h i opus est custodibus*. The word *opus* is never declined.

Where this phrase occurs, all the tenses and all the modes can be used; e. g. *The father was surprised, that his son was so soon in need of money*, *quod filio jam nunc opus esset pecunia*. When the construction of the accusative with the infinitive occurs, then, instead of the nominative, the accusative is used, and the verb agrees with it; e. g. *That helpers will be needed*, *a d j u t o r e s opus esse futuros*. But the ablative is not changed, and the verb in the neuter gender is joined with *opus*; thus, *That there will be need of helpers*, *a d j u t o r i b u s opus esse futurum*.

It is to be noticed, also, that substantives are usually put in the ablative, but adjectives and neuter pronouns, for the most part, in the nominative, because the ablative of the neuter pronouns could not be distinguished from the masculine; e. g. *H a e c mihi opus sunt* (*I have need of these*), not *h i s . mihi opus est*, but, *I have need of help*, *mihi opus est auxilio*, more seldom *auxiliu m*.

When instead of the substantive, a verb is connected with *opus esse*, e. g. *It is not necessary for you to sit here*, then it is not the dative with the infinitive that is used, but the accusative with the infinitive. Therefore, *Nihil opus est te hic sedere*, not *tibi*.

Examples.

The unfortunate¹ have need of help only, not mere² commiseration³. Where there are proofs⁴ of action, the judges have no⁵ need of words. Thou hast promised⁶ me everything, which I needed. We believe that we shall need no expense⁷ for this⁸. For life, we need many things, but for a happy one, only⁹ a sound¹⁰ mind¹¹ and a sound body. If, for a happy life, men needed gold, silver, and other such like¹² things, many must be regarded¹³ as the most unfortunate men. Fleet¹⁴ horses will never¹⁵ need spurs¹⁶. Why¹⁷ did you have need of this ship? We do not need to go¹⁸ home. It is not¹⁹ necessary for you to wait longer²⁰

¹ miser. ² solus. ³ miseratio. ⁴ documentum. ⁵ non. ⁶ pollicēri. ⁷ sumptus. ⁸ ad hoc (for this). ⁹ tantum. ¹⁰ sanus. ¹¹ mens. ¹² ejusmodi. ¹³ habendus. ¹⁴ currens. ¹⁵ nunquam. ¹⁶ calcar. ¹⁷ quid. ¹⁸ proficiisci. ¹⁹ nihil. ²⁰ diu.

THE GENITIVE.

131. This case generally denotes the object from which something proceeds, and has its origin, and that which refers to the object. It marks quality, character and obligation, expresses the relation of the whole to its parts, worth and price, and more fully explains the meaning of a substantive, adjective, verb and adverb.

GENITIVE WITH SUBSTANTIVES.

After substantives, any other substantive can stand in the genitive, when it does not form with them a single idea (e. g. Cicero orator).

This genitive denotes sometimes the person acting, or the efficient cause; sometimes the possessor, either a person or thing, to which something belongs; e. g. *The order of the commander* (*i m p e r a t o r i s*); *the bow of Diana* (*Diana e*).

The relation between the Latin genitive and the substantive by which it is governed, is usually expressed in English by the preposition *of*. For exceptions to this, see § 134.

132. Gerunds in the genitive are also governed by the substantives which they explain; e. g. *The art of reading well is difficult*, *ars bene legendi*; *my hope of spending a happy life is idle*, *mea spes beatam vitam agendi vana est*.

133. Instead of the substantival pronouns *mei*, *tui*, *sui*, *nostri*, *vestri*, in the genitive, the Latins use the possessives *meus*, *tuus*, *suus*, *noster*, *vester*, agreeing in gender, number and case with their substantives. When to these possessive pronouns, which are used instead of the Gen. of the substantive pronouns, any explanatory word is added, to define more clearly the person contained in the possessives, such explanatory word must be in the genitive, as stated above, § 105. These pronouns are sometimes rendered into English as if they were in the genitive.

Examples.

Many orations of Cicero are lost¹. The people² of Spain³ revolted. Your last letter was not pleasing⁴ to me. The art of riding⁵ well is difficult. The desire⁶ of doing good⁷ is strong in many men. Scarcely⁸ a trace⁹ of Corinth is left¹⁰. Herds¹¹ of oxen¹² and horses feed¹³ near Clitumnus. Tigranes, king of Armenia, received Mithridates, king of Pontus, kindly¹⁴. Men have the faculty of speaking and thinking¹⁵. Yesterday I received¹⁶ some letters of yours. I see, that¹⁷ my last¹⁸ writings¹⁹ are known to very few men. In the houses of the Spartan kings, no one could see any²⁰ evidence²¹ of luxury.

¹ deperditus. ² gens. ³ Hispania. ⁴ jucundus. ⁵ equitare. ⁶ voluntas. ⁷ benefacere. ⁸ vix. ⁹ vestigium. ¹⁰ relictus. ¹¹ grex. ¹² bos. ¹⁴ pasci. ¹⁴ amice. ¹⁵ cogitare. ¹⁶ accipere. ¹⁷ (acc. with inf.). ¹⁸ novissimus. ¹⁹ scriptum. ²⁰ (comp. § 122.) ²¹ signum.

GENITIVE OF THE OBJECT.

134. When the genitive denotes the object to which the action implied in the other noun refers, it is called the objective genitive, or the genitive of the object. The object

here receives the action, i. e. is passive, and is not an actor or possessor. The Latins usually employ the genitive here, as they consider one substantive as dependent on the other.

Where, however, ambiguity would arise from the use of the Gen., the Latins use the preposition with its proper case. The preposition is used, when the genitive of a personal substantive follows, because such a substantive more frequently denotes the actor or possessor, than it does the passive object; e. g. *Love for learning*, is expressed by, *amor litterarum*; but, *love for parents*, by *amor in parentes*, not *amor parentum*, which signifies the love which parents have for others. So *impietas in deos* for *deorum*. But yet, very often with these and other substantives, the genitive only is used; e. g. *Desire for one's father*, *desiderium parentis*.

In English also there is often ambiguity; e. g. *The love of God*, i. e. either the love which he exercises, or that of which he is the object. So the Latin *amor Dei*. So, *inuria sociorum*; *odium Oppianici*; *misericordia hujus adolescentis*, etc. In such examples, the connection must determine the sense. The objective genitive is expressed in English by different prepositions.

Examples of such genitives: *Memoria patriae, memory of one's country*; *recordatio itineris, recollection of or respecting the journey*; *laetitia victoriae, joy on account of victory*; *admonitio virtutis, encouragement to virtue*; *praemium industriae, reward for industry*; *reverentia religionis, respect for religion*; *solatium doloris, consolation in affliction*; *judicium tui facti, judgment respecting thy act*; *peritia historiae, acquaintance with history*; *excusatio senectutis, excuse on account of old age*; *studium salutis meae, desire for my welfare*; *via laudis et gloriae, the way to praise and glory*; *gloria posteritatis, renown with posterity*; *Pyrrhi pax, peace with Pyrrhus*; *poenae doloris, punishment for pain*; *aditus honorum, access to places of honor*; *deorum opinio, belief in the gods*; *laudatio mortis, encomium upon death*, etc.

135. But when the English personal pronoun denotes the object of the substantive with which it is connected, the Latin possessive is not used, but the genitives of the personal pro-

nouns, *mei, tui, sui, nostri, vestri, smi*; *Memoria mei, remembrance of me*; *desiderium nostri, desire for us*. Here the *mei* is the object of memory, or the object remembered, and the *nostri*, the object of desire. There is need of care therefore in choosing between *mei* and *meus, tui* and *tuus*, etc., although *meus* and *tuus* are sometimes used ambiguously; e. g. *Injuria mea, the injury done to me*. *Mea conservatio*, signifies, that I preserve *another*; *mei conservatio*, that I am preserved by *another*; *mea memoria, that I think of some person or thing*; *mei memoria, that I am thought of*, i. e. *am the object of which some one thinks*. The pronouns *meus, tuus*, etc. properly denote the *actor*, and the genitives *mei, tui*, etc. the person *receiving* the action.

Examples on §§ 134, 135.

(1) The recollection of their past¹ life is very pleasant to many. Pleasure is an enticement² to baseness³. The remembrance of you always fills⁴ me with the greatest joy; and I doubt⁵ not, that⁶ the remembrance of me gives⁷ joy to you also. Regulus burned⁸ with love for his country. Confidence⁹ in our strength gives us courage¹⁰. The contest¹¹ for riches, honor, and glory is common¹² to almost¹³ all. I am very solicitous concerning¹⁴ your recommendation¹⁵, although I have said everything, which could recommend you. Not the fear of punishment, but the inculcating¹⁶ of duty is the best incentive¹⁷ to virtue. Many have a desire for nothing, except¹⁸ for pleasure. Almost all animals have strength for their defence¹⁹. All men are not captivated²⁰ by equal desire for glory. Patience is the best remedy²¹ for affliction. Cato was inflamed²² with deadly²³ hatred²⁴ against Carthage. Tiberius Gracchus left²⁵ an ardent longing for himself among the Roman people.

¹ superior. ² illecēbra. ³ turpitudō. ⁴ afficēre. ⁵ dubitare. ⁶ quin.
⁷ parare. ⁸ flagrare. ⁹ fiducia. ¹⁰ animus. ¹¹ certāmen. ¹² commūnis.
¹³ fere. ¹⁴ de. ¹⁵ commendatio. ¹⁶ admonitio. ¹⁷ incitamentum. ¹⁸ nisi.
¹⁹ tutēla. ²⁰ tenēre. ²¹ medicina. ²² inflammare (active). ²³ perniciousus.
²⁴ odium. ²⁵ relinquēre.

(2) I will cause¹ you to² rejoice in the midst³ of your affliction and your desire for us. Nature has implanted⁴ in

man a desire for truth⁵ and rectitude⁶. Epicurus when dying, asked, that not only his memory, but also that of Metrodorus might be celebrated. May every⁷ recollection of discord be obliterated⁸ by perpetual⁹ forgetfulness¹⁰. Glory is the greatest incentive to danger and toil¹¹. We pray you always¹² to retain¹³ the remembrance of us. To whom his own preservation is an object of solicitude¹⁴, to him all parts of the body are dear¹⁵ also.

¹ facio. ² ut (with subj.). ³ medius. ⁴ ingnēre. ⁵ verum. ⁶ rectum.
⁷ omnis. ⁸ delere. ⁹ sempiternus. ¹⁰ oblivio. ¹¹ labor. ¹² perpetuo.
¹³ servare. ¹⁴ cordi esse (object of solicitude). ¹⁵ carus.

136. But the genitive stands in such phrases, only when in Latin there is a substantive, on which the genitive depends; for when instead of the substantive, some other word is used, then the genitive is put in the case which that word requires; e. g. *I long for my country*, mihi est desiderium patriae, but desidēro patriam. *I take into consideration your industry*, rationem habeo tuae industriae, but respicio industriam. *I care for thy father*, mihi cura est tui patris, but euro tuum patrem, and provideo (prospicio, consulo) tuo patri,—and so in similar instances.

137. On the other hand, we have many phrases, in which there is no substantive, but which in Latin, are expressed by phrases containing a substantive, as the principal word, and hence it takes a genitive; e. g. *To regard something*, rationem habēre alicujus rei; *to mention something*, mentionem facēre alicujus; *to avenge something*, vindicem esse alicujus; *to advise something*, to relate something, auctorem esse alicujus; *to try something*, periculum facēre alicujus; *to know something*, to be acquainted with something, scientiam habēre alicujus; *to reckon among something*, in numero alicujus habēre; *to end something*, alicujus rei finem facēre; and also many other similar phrases. Hence, *Balbus relates this occurrence*, is expressed by *hujus rei auctor est Balbus*.

Examples on §§ 136, 137.

Why¹ dost thou mention² this worthless³ man? He who does not regard⁴ the dignity of him, with whom he lives, is called foolish⁵. I always advise⁶ to peace, not to war. Caesar considered⁷ Pompey and others among⁸ the enemies⁹ of the state. The furies revenge¹⁰ the crimes¹¹ and wickedness¹² of men. Epaminondas, Caesar and Hannibal were better acquainted¹³ with military affairs¹⁴, than any others¹⁵. Regard¹⁶ thine own advantage first, then¹⁷ mine. Hesiod first related¹⁸ this fable. Demosthenes closed¹⁹ his oration unexpectedly²⁰.

¹ quid. ² mentionem facēre. ³ infimus. ⁴ rationem habēre. ⁵ ineptus.
⁶ auctor esse. ⁷ habēre. ⁸ in numero. ⁹ hostis. ¹⁰ vindicem esse. ¹¹ facinus. ¹² scelus. ¹³ scientiam habēre. ¹⁴ res militaris. ¹⁵ ante omnes (bet-

ter than any others). ¹⁶ rationem habere. ¹⁷ deinde. ¹⁸ auctor esse.
¹⁹ finem facere. ²⁰ improviso.

138. Some Latin substantives govern a genitive, whether they are translated by adverbs or other parts of speech : (1) *In star* (a likeness), *as, like, just as*; (2) *more, modo*, and *ritu* (according to the manner, or custom of), *as, like, like as*; (3) *causa, gratia* and *ergo*, *on account of, for, for the sake of*.

The words *causa* and *gratia* do not usually stand *before* their genitives, but *after* them. *My, thy, his, etc.* are here rendered by the possessive *mea, tua, sua, nostra, vestra* and *sua*, placed *before* their substantive, but not by *mei, tui, etc.* When *ipse, unus* or *solus*, are joined with *mea, tua, etc.*, the former are put in the genitive,—in the singular with *mea, tua, sua*, and in the plural with *nostra, vestra* and *sua* (plural).

Some examples : *Like a mountain, instar montis; as the beasts, more (ritu) pecudum; for the sake of my father, mei patris causa (gratia); for my sake, mea causa; for the sake of myself alone, mea unius causa; on account of victory, victoriae ergo; for example, exempli causa or gratia; for the sake of walking, ambulandi causa; for the sake of writing a letter, epistolam scribendi causa.*

Examples.

We do not live for our own sake alone, but also for the sake of other men. Thy last letter was like¹ a little book². The years of our life pass³ like⁴ the waves⁵ of swiftly running⁶ water. Most⁷ men do everything only⁸ for their own sake. I ask you to⁹ undertake¹⁰ this for the sake of my honor. Give up¹¹ common¹² pleasures for the sake of obtaining¹³ greater pleasures, and endure¹⁴ pain for the sake of avoiding¹⁵ greater pain. Thou doest everything for thy own sake. Many pass¹⁶ their lives in obscurity¹⁷, like¹⁸ the herds¹⁹. Cicero valued²⁰ Brutus and Cassius more²¹ on account of the state, than on account of his familiarity with them. This place was not like²² a village²³, but like a city.

We do not live for ourselves. Beware²⁴ for thine own sake.
We do everything for the sake of living happily²⁵.

¹ instar. ² libellus. ³ transire. ⁴ more. ⁵ unda. ⁶ cito fluens. ⁷ plerique.
⁸ tantum. ⁹ ut (with subj.). ¹⁰ suscipere. ¹¹ omittere. ¹² vulgaris. ¹³ adi-
pisci. ¹⁴ suscipere. ¹⁵ effugere. ¹⁶ transigere. ¹⁷ silentie. ¹⁸ ritu. ¹⁹ pe-
cōra. ²⁰ diligere. ²¹ plus. ²² instar. ²³ vicus. ²⁴ cavere. ²⁵ beate.

139. English adjectives also, which qualify substantives, are often expressed in Latin by a substantive in the genitive. This mode must in all instances be adopted, when the Latin adjective is either not in use, or does not have the appropriate meaning; e. g. *Mental* (bodily) *pleasure*, *animi* (*corporis*) *voluptas*.

GENITIVE OF QUALITY.

140. The English and the Latin express the *qualities* of a substantive both by adjectives and substantives; e. g. *He is a man of great eloquence*, instead of, *a very eloquent man*.

In Latin, the substantives denoting *quality* are put either in the genitive or ablative; e. g. *Homo generosae naturae*, or *generosa natura*; *opus summae artis*, or *summa arte*.

But such genitives or ablatives of quality never consist of a substantive merely; there must always be united with the substantive an adjective or numeral, or pronoun expressing quality.

For the purpose of writing Latin, therefore, it is of great importance to know how English adjectives are expressed by such a periphrasis. English positives can seldom be rendered into Latin periphrastically; e. g. *Good*, *swift*, *great*. We cannot say in Latin, to denote a swift man, *vir celeritatis* or *celeritate*. But *very swift*, by a circumlocution is *of great swiftness*; *uncommonly modest*, *of uncommon modesty*. Hence, besides the substantive of quality, the words *magnus*, *maximus*, *summus*, *ingens*, *eximius* and the like are used. The word *so*, becomes *such a* (*talis*, *is*); *so very* = *so great*; *how very=what, how great*; and so others

similar. An accurate analysis will explain each example. In the same manner comparatives are expressed by *major*, and superlatives by *maximus, summus*; e. g. *Very virtuous=of great virtue, magna virtutis; uncommonly virtuous=of greater virtue, majoris virtutis; most virtuous=of the greatest virtue, summae virtutis; how virtuous=of what virtue, cuius (qualis, quantae) virtutis.*

141. The genitive* of quality is used, where the quality is represented as an *essential* one, as belonging to the very nature of the object, whereas the ablative represents the quality as *accidental* not essential. Hence substantives denoting the measure of *number, time* and *space*, are always expressed in the genitive; this Gen. is also very often employed to *qualify* a substantive, more seldom as a predicate. Therefore, it is always said, *iter (via) unius diei*, not *uno die*; *alia ejus generis, ejusmodi*, not *eo genere, eo modo*; *fossa pedum trium*, not *pedibus tribus*; *res magni laboris, parvi momenti*; *classis septuaginta navium*.

| Both the Gen. and Abl. of quality are used sometimes to

* By the genitive, an object is represented as it *is* (in the view of the speaker), by the ablative, as it *shows itself or appears*. Thus, e. g. *Quanto fuerim dolore, meministi*, could not be expressed by *quanti doloris*. Hence, if an internal quality, intellectual or moral, is to be represented as a *predominant characteristic*, and as denoting the *nature* of a person, the genitive only can be used. On the contrary, if a quality is to be represented as only appearing in a person without belonging to his nature, the ablative alone can be used. It will be readily seen, therefore, from this distinction, how the writer, in certain places, views a quality and wishes to represent it. *Murena mediocre ingenio, sed magno studio rerum veterum, multae industriae et magni laboris fuit. M. showed little genius, but a great passion for antiquity; diligence and exertion belong to his nature.* The Abl. however, could be used here in place of the Gen., though expressing a different relation.

Qualities of the body also, so far as they relate to the *whole* body, and belong to its nature, can be expressed in the Gen. Other qualities of the body are denoted by the Abl. only. *Thyus, homo maximus corporis, terribili facie, quod et niger et capillo longo barbaque erat promissa.* See Krüger's Lat. Gram. § 398. Rem. 1.

qualify another substantive, and sometimes as the predicate, in which case they are connected with their subjects by *esse* or *fieri*; e. g. *Lysander, a man of the greatest bravery, a most brave man*, *Lysander summae virtutis*; *Lysander was very brave*, *Lysander erat summae virtutis*.

For the purpose of uniting the quality with the subject, instead of the verb *to be*, we generally use the verbs *to have* or *to possess*, or *to prove* or some other one; the Latins only *esse*; e. g. *Cato possessed the greatest prudence*, *Cato erat summae prudentiae*.

Compare these remarks with what will be said of the ablative of quality, § 192.

Examples.

Cato was a man of tried¹ fidelity and ardent² love for his country. Catiline was a most³ inconstant⁴ man. Sempronius had done⁵ many manly⁶ and audacious⁷ acts⁸. The squirrel is a very⁹ gluttonous¹⁰ animal. In the Roman state, many very brave citizens were found¹¹. This easy¹² business has been committed¹³ to me. Lucius Torquatus, a man of the noblest disposition¹⁴, of the greatest penetration¹⁵, and of uncommon¹⁶ firmness¹⁷, was the most intimate friend¹⁸ of Cicero. The emperor Titus was so kind¹⁹ and liberal²⁰, that he never refused²¹ anything to any one. Caius Serranus was a man of respectable²² talents²³ and judgment²⁴. Instruct²⁵ our Lentulus, a most hopeful²⁶ and virtuous²⁷ youth. Virtue has so great strength²⁸, that²⁹ she can protect³⁰ herself. An armistice³¹ of thirty days has been made. The pyramid of Cheops, king of Egypt, was eight hundred feet high. A thanksgiving³² of twenty-two days was decreed³³.

¹ spectatus. ² flagrans. ³ summus. ⁴ inconstans. ⁵ committere.
⁶ virilis. ⁷ audacia. ⁸ facinus. ⁹ plurimus. ¹⁰ cibus. ¹¹ reperiri. ¹² parvus.
¹³ committere. ¹⁴ animus. ¹⁵ consilium. ¹⁶ singularis. ¹⁷ constans.
¹⁸ amicissimus (the most intimate friend). ¹⁹ facilitas. ²⁰ liberalitas.
²¹ denegare. ²² satis magnus. ²³ ingenium. ²⁴ consilium. ²⁵ erudire.
²⁶ eximia spes. ²⁷ summa virtus. ²⁸ vires. ²⁹ ut. ³⁰ tueri. ³¹ induitae.
³² supplicatio. ³³ decernere.

142. The genitive of a substantive, without another substantive to govern it, very often stands with the verb *esse*, and with the passives *duci* and *haberi* (to be considered), etc.,

when the subject of a sentence is an infinitive, or the verb is in the third person singular without a subject. This genitive denotes the *peculiarity*, the *mark*, the *character*, the *nature*, the *employment*, the *duty*, the *habit*, of some person or thing. The following among other phrases may be noticed; *It is the duty of a young man*, est adolescentis; *it is the habit, nature, characteristic of an experienced judge*, est periti iudicis; *it is a sign, mark, peculiarity of a weak mind*, est imbecilli animi; *it is the nature of every man*, est cuiusque hominis.

So also without a substantive; e. g. *It is my duty*, est meum; *it is our duty*, est nostrum; *the father believed that it was his duty*, suum esse putabat.

Further; this genitive is used in translating many English phrases, e. g. *It is conformable to duty*; *he is wont*; *it shows, it indicates*; *it bespeaks, gives proof of*; *it is incumbent on*; *it is a peculiarity of*, etc.; e. g. *To perceive this gives proof of prudence, to do it, of courage*, hoc sentire prudentiae est, facere fortitudinis; *we cannot judge*, non est nostri judicii; *this is most conformable to duty*, hoc maxime officii est; *some one must*, est alicujus; *some one ought not*, non est alicujus; *your education requires it*, est humanitatis tuae.

Examples.

A wise¹ husbandman* is accustomed² to pluck off³ the superfluous⁴ leaves⁵ of the vine. To be angry on account of⁶ the fault of another⁷, is a proof of a contracted mind⁸. It is the duty of the magistrate to withstand⁹ the rashness¹⁰ of wicked men. It is a proof of a noble nature always to hope; but to strive¹¹ in vain¹² is a proof of the greatest folly. It is a proof of insatiable avarice, to desire¹³ too much¹⁴, as if it ought¹⁵ to be considered¹⁷ a mark of a temperate¹⁸ man, not to desire too much. It is our duty to forget discord. It is an evidence of luxury to desire¹⁹ delicate²⁰ things. It is the duty of men to pity²¹ the unfortunate²². It is a characteristic of a grateful people to reward²³ meritorious²⁴ citizens, as it is the characteristic of brave²⁵ men not to be influenced²⁶.

by punishment²⁷. Nothing proves so narrow²⁸ and contracted²⁹ a mind, as to love riches.

¹sapiens. ²rusticus. ³esse. ⁴decepere. ⁵frons,
 -dis. ⁶ob. ⁷peccatum alienum. ⁸angustum pectus. ⁹resistere. ¹⁰temeritas. ¹¹niti. ¹²frustra. ¹³concupiscere. ¹⁴nimum (too much).
¹⁵sicut. ¹⁶debere. ¹⁷ducere. ¹⁸continens. ¹⁹desiderare. ²⁰delicatus.
²¹misereri. ²²infelix. ²³praemissis afficere. ²⁴bene meritus. ²⁵fortis.
²⁶movere. ²⁷supplicium. ²⁸angustus. ²⁹parvus.

143. The Latins use the genitive with the verb *esse*, to denote the possessor and owner of anything, where we say in English, *to be in the possession of any one, to belong to any one*. But the English personal pronoun is rendered by the Latin possessive instead of the genitive. *Fieri* is also used in the same manner; *to come into the possession of any one, to become the property of any one*; e. g. *This book belongs to my father, is in the possession of my father, hic liber est mei patris; this belongs neither to me, nor to any one of us, hoc est neque meum neque cuiusquam nostrum*; *Miletus came into the power of Alexander the Great, Miletus facta est Alexandri magni*. But when pronouns are employed, the possessives are used; e. g. *This book belongs to me, hic liber meus est*. But there is some difference between the sentences, *This book belongs to my father*—and, *My father has a book*; the first is expressed by, *hic liber est patris mei*; the other by, *patri meo est liber*, where *esse* is used with the dative. The *genitive* is used, when the property is to be represented as *necessarily belonging* to the possessor; the *dative*, on the contrary, is used, when it is to be generally expressed, that some one has or possesses something.

Examples.

The city of Rome was then wholly in the possession of the Gauls. In the time of Augustus, almost the whole known¹ world² belonged to the Romans. Nothing belongs to a fool³, as⁴ the wise affirm⁵. Two men sail⁶ upon the high sea; the ship belongs to one⁷, and the cargo⁸ to the other. It was an ancient proverb, The ship and cargo ought to belong to those, who have preserved⁹ the ship in a storm¹⁰. Every-

thing which belongs to me, belongs also to my friends. Europe never wholly belonged to any one¹¹ master, but the greater part of it once¹² belonged to the Romans.

¹notus. ²orbis terrarum. ³stultus. ⁴ut. ⁵dicere. ⁶navigare. ⁷alter.
⁸onus. ⁹servare (fut. perf.). ¹⁰tempestas. ¹¹unus. ¹²quondam.

GENITIVE DENOTING A PART, OR THE PARTITIVE GENITIVE.

144. When substantives, adjectives, numerals, pronouns and adverbs, stand in connection with a word, which expresses a divisible whole, and they denote only a *part* of the whole, not the whole undivided, then the declinable word which denotes the whole, is put in the genitive, which is called the partitive genitive. Thus, the substantive, *Romans*, expresses a great divisible whole, and this whole is divided, when I say, *many*, *few*, *no one*, *one*, *among* or *of the Romans*.

We express the relation of this genitive in English by the prepositions *of* or *among*; e. g. *Many of us*; *no one among the Greeks*.

Almost all kinds of words can express this relation of the part to the whole, whenever they contain the idea of a small or great number, abundance or want of anything, and the like; or generally, when they stand in such a connection with a divisible whole, that it no longer seems whole, but divided thereby.

Some examples: *None among all societies*, *nulla omnium societatum*; *every one of* or *among us*, *unusquisque nostrum*; *the first among all virtues*, *princeps omnium virtutum*; *many of these trees*, *multae istarum arborum*; *which of us two?* *uter nostrum?*

Remarks.

145. (1) The English phrases, *Both of us*, *we both*, *both of you*, *both of these*, *both of whom*, and the like, when they refer to two individual persons or things, are expressed only by *uterque nostrum*, *nestrum*, *horum*—and *quorum uterque*, as *uterque* signifies each of two.

All of these, when *uterque* is the subject, take the verb in the third person singular; e. g. *Both of us*, or *we both have received*, *uterque nostrum accepit*. Besides the pronouns *nostrum*, *vestrum*, etc., no substantive stands in the genitive with *uterque*, but in the same case; e. g. *Uterque miles*, *uterq. dux*, *uterq. exercitus*. The plural, *utriusque*, which is used when there are several on both sides, never governs a genitive; hence, *Nos utriusque, both of us* (e. g. poet and orators), and so all similar phrases.

(2) Instead of the genitive, the Latins very often use the prepositions *ex* or *de*; e. g. *None of (among) all the emotions of the mind*, *nulla ex omnibus animi perturbationibus*; *the wisest of*, or *among the seven*, *sapientissimus in septem*; *who of our people*, *quis de nostris hominibus?*

(3) In this construction with *ex* or *de*, the word *unus*, in the best writers, always has the sense of the numeral *one*, and then does not govern the genitive; e. g. *He seems to me one of the fortunate*, *unus ex fortunatis*; *he is one of or among the best*, *unus ex optimis*,—where *unus* can also be omitted. But when *unus* stands as a pronoun in the sense of the *one*, where it is connected with an *alter* (the other), then it governs the genitive; e. g. *The one of these is an Athenian*, *unus eorum*; *the one of these cities is the so called island*, *hanc urbium una*.

(4) As the word *among* is sometimes expressed by the Latin genitive, there is need of caution, since, in other instances, that preposition is expressed by *inter* or *in*; e. g. *That man is not even known among (inter) his friends*; *Hercules was among (in) the most pleasing citizens*; *he fell among (in) robbers*.

146. (5) There are many phrases, containing a definite or indefinite numeral, in which there is no division of the whole, because the definite or indefinite numeral only denotes *how great* the whole is to be considered. In such cases, the Latin does not use the genitive, but the nominative, when it is the subject, or the accusative, when it is the object. The expressions, *of whom*, *of which*, *of us*, *of you*, *of them*, often occur in this connection. This is the case in the following phrases: *There are ten of us (of you)*, or *we are ten*, etc., *nos sumus (vos estis) decem*; *thy friends, of whom (quois) thou hast so many*; *I wonder, that there are so few of you*, or *that you are so few, vos estis*.

(6) In like manner, when it is not necessary to consider the whole as divided, or when the whole is not to be expressly opposed to the parts, the genitive is not used, but the noun agrees in case with the numeral; e. g. *Many of the soldiers* (many soldiers), *multi milites*; *how many of the scholars*, *quot discipuli*; *many of our regulations*, *multa instituta nostra*; *two of the most sacred things*, i. e. the two most sacred things, *duae res sanctissimae*. So in many other connections; e. g. *Very many of our books*, *libri nostri complices*; *no one of our commanders*, *nullus noster imperator*; *one of his laws*, *lex quaedam sua*; *no one of my words*, *even the least*, *nullum meum minimum dictum*. So also, *The most of you remember*, can be expressed by, *plerique me ministis*; *whoever of you has come to Enna, has seen*, *qui Ennam venistis, vidistis*.

Examples on §§ 144—146.

Verres was a more detestable¹ tyrant at Syracuse, than any one² of the former³. Who among all is more learned than Aristotle? Not every one⁴ among us knows, what is useful for him. Another example does not occur⁵ to every one⁶ of us. Which of those two combatants⁷ obtained⁸ the victory? P. Cornelius Scipio had two sons, the elder⁹ of whom routed¹⁰ Hannibal at Zama, and the younger¹¹, Antiochus at Magnesia. In the battle at Cannae, one¹² of the consuls escaped, the other fell¹³. No one among men is always prosperous. Among all animals, man alone is endowed¹⁴ with speech¹⁵ and thought¹⁶. Report has announced this to you, quicker* than the letter of any of us. How few¹⁷ there are among us, who are not desirous of riches. My desire¹⁸ for** both of you is very great. In this house is that, which was fatal¹⁹ to both of them. No one of us can be moulded²⁰ at once²¹. Among all connections²², there is no one more dear, than that, which each of us has with his country. I recommend him to you, as²³ one of my family²⁴ and nearest²⁵ acquaintances²⁶. The sheep is the best clothed²⁷ of all animals. Which of us two is a lover (amans) of peace? Among all triumphs, this was the most grateful²⁸ and pleasing to the Roman people. This will certainly be pleasant to both of you. Since there are so many (tot) of us, we can accomplish²⁹ the work quicker. I speak of thy letters, an innumerable number³⁰ of which I received at one time. My labors are too many³¹. The captives were more³² than the slain³³. Those animals which produce³⁴ but few young, have but few udders³⁵. I lately³⁶ began to read the Greek poets, of whom there are so many, and the greater number of whom are praised. You both (both of you) are Socratics. We are both (both of us are) Socratics. In the country³⁷ of the Hernici, are very many of those places, which were fortified³⁸ by Cycloopian walls³⁹. Most of you⁴⁰ know⁴¹ my parents. The most acute⁴² of all our senses is the sense of sight⁴³.

¹ teter. ² quisquam. ³ supērus. ⁴ quisque. ⁵ occurrēre. ⁶ unusquisque. ⁷ luctator. ⁸ reportare. ⁹ natu magnus. ¹⁰ fundēre. ¹¹ natu parvus. ¹² alter. ¹³ cadēre. ¹⁴ particeps esso alicujus (to be endowed with or to partake of something). ¹⁵ oratio. ¹⁶ cogitatio. ^{*} celeriter. ¹⁷ quotusquisque (verb singular). ¹⁸ desiderium. ^{**} (see § 134.) ¹⁹ fatalis. ²⁰ finigēre. ²¹ subito. ²² sociētas. ²³ ut. ²⁴ domesticus. ²⁵ maxime. ²⁶ necessarius. ²⁷ vestitus. ²⁸ gratus. ²⁹ exsēqui. ³⁰ innumerabilis (an innumerable number). ³¹ nimius. ³² plures. ³³ caesus. ³⁴ gignēre. ³⁵ mam-

ma. ³⁶ nuper. ³⁷ terra. ³⁸ munitus. ³⁹ murus. ⁴⁰ (according to §146. 6.)
⁴¹ novisse. ⁴² acer. ⁴³ videre.

GENITIVE AFTER SOME NEUTER ADJECTIVES AND PRONOUNS, TO EXPRESS MEASURE AND DEGREE.

147. Many neuter adjectives of quantity (which denote greatness, measure and degree), and many pronouns in the nominative and accusative, have, like substantives, the noun or adjective belonging to them, (for the adjective is then used as a substantive,) in the genitive. This is employed to denote the measure or degree, which belongs to anything; e. g. *much gold*, i. e. *much of gold*, *multum auri*; *more books*, *plus librorum*.

The following, especially, take a genitive: *Quantum*, *how much*; *tantum*, *so much*; *aliquantum*, *considerable*, *a great deal*; *multum*, *much*; *plus*, *more*; *amplius*, *more*; *plurimum*, *very much*; *parum*, *too little*; *minus*, *less*; *minimum*, *very little*, *least of all*; *nihil*, *nothing*, *no*; *aliquid*, *something*; *quidquam*, *anything*; *quidquid*, *whatever*, *all that*; *quid*, *what*, *how much*; *hoc* and *id*, *this*, *so much*; *quod*, *which*, *what*; *nimum*, *too much*; *satis*, *enough*; *reliquum*, *the remainder*; *dimidium*, *the half*; *aliquid*, *something else*—and others similar.

Some examples: *A considerable piece of ground*, *aliquantum agri*; *more good than evil*, *plus boni quam mali*; *some misfortune*, *aliquid (quid) adversi*; *so much pains and time*, *tantum (id) operae et temporis*; *less strength*, *minus virium*; *too much wickedness*, *nimum sceleris*; *too little happiness*, *parum felicitatis*; *no reward*, *nihil premii*; *whatever plan*, *quocunque consilii*; *at that age*, *id aetatis*, where *id* in this sense stands as the accusative, according to the Greek usage.

Remarks.

148. (1) The neutrals *multum*, *reliquum*, *nimum*, *aliud*, *hoc*, *id*, *istud*, *illud* and *quod*, are also used as adjectives, and then do not govern a genitive, but only qualify their substantives, which are put in any case the sentence requires; e. g. *Much gold*, *multum auri* and *multum aurum*; *the remaining time*, *reliquum temporis* and *reliquum tempus*; *much labor*, *multum laboris* and *multus labor*; *much pains*, *multum operae* and *multa opera*. It is here

to be noticed, that *much money* is not expressed by *multum pecuniae*, but by *magna pecunia*.

The neuter singular of an adjective of quantity, or of a pronoun, must stand only in the nominative or accusative, not in any other case, in which it would not be recognized as neuter. We may say, therefore, *tantum pecuniae*, but not *tant*i**, *tant*o** *pecuniae*; but the word of quantity in this case agrees with the substantive, *tant*a** *pecuniae*. For *plus* and *nihil*, which from their substantive nature cannot be put in the same case with the substantive, *nullus* or *major* is used; e. g. *majore* or *nulla* *pecunia* *em*i**.

(2) The words *quantum* and *tantum* with the genitive, signify only *how much* and *so much*; but as adjectives, in all genders, they signify *how great* and *so great*. Hence caution is needed not to use these adjectives in the sense of *how much* and *so much*; e. g. *How many examples*, *quantum exemplorum*, not *quanta exempla*; *so many examples*, *tantum exemplorum*, not *tanta exempla*. So, as an adjective, *plurimum* signifies *the most*; *minus*, *less*; and *minimum*, *least*.

149. (3) Only adjectives of the second declension, e. g. *verum*, *falsum*, *bonum*, *malum*, *novum*, and the like, can be put in the genitive with such neutrals; e. g. *Plus boni*, *quam mali*, *si quid novi*, *si quid adversi*, and the like. But as even these, when they are only predicates of those neutrals, must be in the same case with them, e. g. *he left nothing unaccomplished*, *nihil imperfectum* (not *imperfecti*) *relinquit*; *nothing is difficult to an energetic man*, *nihil arduum* (not *ardui*) *est impigo*; so also adjectives of the third declension do not stand in the genitive with those neutrals, but are used simply to qualify them; e. g. *something similar*, *aliquid simile* (not *similis*); *nothing sad*, *nihil triste*. And even the adjective of the second declension adopts this form, when it is joined with an adjective of the third declension; e. g. *something heavenly and divine*, *quiddam coeleste et divinum*.

In the same manner the ancients also frequently use, (especially with *nihil*, *quid* and *quiddam*), adjectives of the second declension, as qualifying words, for the purpose of making the idea contained in them more prominent; e. g. *These men know nothing elevated, nothing noble, and nothing divine*, *nihil altum*, *nihil magnificum*, *nihil divinum* (*nothing which is elevated*).

Examples on §§ 147—149.

Flaminius saw, in the battle at lake Thrasimenus, only so many¹ enemies as² stood opposite to³ him. The⁴ less⁵ fear there is, the⁶ less danger there is wont to be. Young⁷ men generally⁸ demand⁹ more travelling-money¹⁰, than they need¹¹. When something fortunate¹² occurs¹³ in war, the commanders attribute¹⁴ it to themselves. In milk there is some oil¹⁵. There are many men, who have more money*, than good report¹⁶. At what¹⁷ age was Socrates then? What was the cause, why¹⁸ you denied¹⁹ this to him? As much²⁰ of the distance²¹ remained²² to Alexander, as²³ he had passed²⁴.

Aristides determined²⁵ how much money every state should give. Æmilius Paulus brought²⁶ so much money into the treasury²⁷, that the people have since²⁸ paid²⁹ no tribute. Collatia and all³⁰ the country which was around Collatia, was taken³¹ from the Sabines. There is³² not seldom something³³ sweet in sorrow. It was uncertain, whether³⁴ the Spaniards or³⁵ the Romans, had more bravery. What injury, I pray³⁶, has happened to you. That has too much³⁷ good, which has nothing bad. I have less strength, than either³⁸ of you two. Nothing very³⁹ remarkable⁴⁰ occurred in Spain at that time. Otacilius laid waste⁴¹ considerable⁴² land around⁴³ Utica. The one⁴⁴ has more strength, than the other⁴⁵. Justice desires⁴⁶ no⁴⁷ reward⁴⁸. This porch⁴⁹ has as much shade⁵⁰ as²³ light. I devote⁵¹ to this study very little time. Even without thy death, there are here tears and sorrow⁵² enough. Truly⁵³ thou hast had far more pleasure⁵⁴ than one⁵⁵ of us.

¹ id (so many). ² quod. ³ ex adverso. ⁴ quo. ⁵ minus. ⁶ eo. ⁷ adolescens (a young man). ⁸ plerumque. ⁹ poscere. ¹⁰ viaticum. ¹¹ opus esse. ¹² secundus. ¹³ evénire. ¹⁴ tribuere. ¹⁵ oléum. ¹⁶ nummi,-orum. ¹⁷ fama. ¹⁸ quid (at what). ¹⁹ cur. ²⁰ denegare (subjunc.). ²¹ tantudem (as much). ²² via. ²³ superesse. ²⁴ quantum. ²⁵ emetiri. ²⁶ constituere. ²⁷ inferre. ²⁸ aerarium. ²⁹ ex eo tempore. ³⁰ solvēre. ³¹ quidquid (all—which). ³² adimere. ³³ inesse. ³⁴ quiddam. ³⁵ utrum. ³⁶ an. ³⁷ tandem (I pray). ³⁸ nimium. ³⁹ utervis. ⁴⁰ admōdum. ⁴¹ memorabilis. ⁴² depopulari. ⁴³ aliquantum. ⁴⁴ circa. ⁴⁵ alius. ⁴⁶ expetere. ⁴⁷ nihil. ⁴⁸ pretium. ⁴⁹ porticus. ⁵⁰ umbra. ⁵¹ dare. ⁵² luctus. ⁵³ nœ. ⁵⁴ delectatio. ⁵⁵ (comp. § 122).

GENITIVE AFTER ADJECTIVES AND PARTICIPLES, DENOTING AN OPERATION OR STATE OF THE MIND.

150. All adjectives and participles which denote an operation or state of the intellect or feelings, have the object of this operation or state in the genitive. Participles then take the nature of adjectives, and express no relation of time, for as participles, they govern the same case as their verbs do. The following, therefore, govern the genitive :

(1) Those which refer to the intellect ; *peritus, imperitus, sagax, gnarus, ignarus, certus, prudens, imprudens, conscient, sciens, insciens, nesciens, rudis, providus, improvidus, consultus, memor, immemor, tenax* ; in all of which the idea of

knowledge or ignorance, memory or forgetfulness, and, as in *tenax*, mental retention, is contained.

These adjectives are not always translated by adjectives; verbs are often used; e. g. *I understand this art*, *hujus artis peritus* (*gnarus, sciens*) *sum*; *I know of this occurrence*, *hujus rei certus sum*; *I do not know the customs of the nation*, *morum gentis imperitus* (*ignarus*) *sum*; *I foresee the future*, *futuri providus sum*; *I think of thy brother*, *memor sum tui fratris*; *I hold fast to these verses*, *tenax sum horum versuum*. The adjective *certus* is also constructed with *de*; and *peritus*, *prudens* and *rudis* with *ad* and *in*.

Conscius is sometimes construed with the dative of a thing, and always with the dative of a person, in the sense of *conscious within one's self* (*sibi*), or *privy with some one to something*, (*alicui alicuius rei, or in aliqua re*); e. g. *Conscius fratri tanti sceleris, privy or accessory with his brother to so great a crime*; *tot flagitorum exercitiū suo conscius, privy with his army to so many disgraceful deeds*.

151. (2) Those which refer to the feelings are, *cupidus*, *avidus*, *studiosus*, *fastidious*, *negligens*, *appetens*, *amans*, *diligens*, *fugiens*, *sitiens*, *patiens*, *impatiens*, *abstinenſ*, *tenax*, *observans*, *reverens*, *metuens*, *contemnens*; in all of which the idea of desire or aversion, care or neglect, patience or impatience, esteeming or the contrary, and similar qualities of the mind, are contained.

These adjectives also are sometimes translated by verbs; e. g. *I long for*, *I strive for glory*, *cupidus* (*avidus, appetens*) *sum gloriae*; *I love peace*, *amans sum pacis*; *I avoid strife*, *fugiens sum litium*; *I have an aversion to, a disgust for this art*, *fastidious sum hujus artis*; *I can endure, bear the cold*, *frigoris sum patiens*; *I cannot endure the cold*, *frigoris sum impatiens*; *I abstain from this drink*, *abstinenſ sum hujus potionis*; *I reverence God*, *Dei sum reverens*; *you neglect your friends*, *tu negligens es amicorum*; *he is true to his purpose, he holds fast to his purpose*, *tenax est propositi*; *I love letters*, *studiosus sum litterarum*. The purest classic writers do not construct *patiens* and *impatiens* with the genitive, but with *in*; the genitive, however, is not to be rejected.

Examples on §§ 150, 151.

The ancient Romans always strove¹ for glory, and were desirous² of praise. Only a few are sufficiently³ acquainted⁴ with antiquity and the ancient authors. The Roman youth* of former⁵ times could endure⁶ every toil⁷ and labor. Pisisstratus was very fond⁸ of the arts and literature⁹. The ass can least of all endure¹⁰ the cold. Pompey the Great was

exceedingly desirous¹¹ of power, he was constant¹² in friendship, and almost without any¹³ fault. He, who is not acquainted¹⁴ with the customs and the passions¹⁵ of men, is often deceived¹⁶. Only a very few men are desirous of riches. At that time, the nobles¹⁷ among the Romans were generally ignorant¹⁸ of everything which pertained to warfare¹⁹. Oil rubbed²⁰ upon²¹ the body, makes²² it firmer²³ and more capable of enduring²⁴ injury. The crocodile seems to be very fond of dog's flesh²⁵. The cow²⁶ can bear²⁷ all external cold, better than the horse. Thorius Balbus had not merely a desire²⁸ for pleasure, but was also a connoisseur in²⁹ every³⁰ kind of it. By nature, we retain³¹ most firmly what³² we learned in the years³³ of childhood. Whoever wishes³⁴ to undertake³⁵ war, seeks³⁶ men who are acquainted (gnarus) with weapons and military service³⁷. Aristotle knew³⁸ very accurately the nature of things. What nation does not love a thankful mind³⁹, and one grateful⁴⁰ for favors. Come to us, who⁴¹ love you most ardently. Thou hast made me acquainted⁴² with thy design⁴³. Atilius was considered to be learned in⁴⁴ the civil law.

¹ app̄tēns esse (to strive). ² av̄idus. ³ satis. ⁴ gnarus (acquainted with). ⁵ juventus. ⁶ prior. ⁷ patientem esse. ⁸ molestia. ⁹ amantissimum esse (very fond). ¹⁰ litterae. ¹¹ impatientissimum esse (can least of all endure). ¹² cupidus. ¹³ tenax. ¹⁴ ullus. ¹⁵ ignarus esse (not acquainted with). ¹⁶ animi perturbatio. ¹⁷ decipere. ¹⁸ nobilis. ¹⁹ ignarus. ²⁰ res militaris. ²¹ inunctus. ²² (dative). ²³ reddere. ²⁴ firmus. ²⁵ patiens (capable of enduring). ²⁶ caro canina. ²⁷ vacca. ²⁸ patientiorem esse (can bear better). ²⁹ cupidus esse (to have a desire). ³⁰ intelligens. ³¹ qui quis. ³² tenacem esse (to retain firmly). ³³ ea, quae. ³⁴ rudes anni (years of childhood). ³⁵ velle. ³⁶ moliri. ³⁷ requirere. ³⁸ militia. ³⁹ sagacem esse (to know accurately). ⁴⁰ animus. ⁴¹ memor. ⁴² amantissimus (who loves most ardently). ⁴³ certus. ⁴⁴ consilium. ⁴⁵ prudens in.

GENITIVE AFTER OTHER ADJECTIVES.

152. In the same manner, the genitive is governed:

(1) By adjectives which denote *participation*, and the contrary, *plenty* and *want*; viz. *particeps*, *socius*, *consors*, *expers*, *plenus*, *refertus*, *inops*, *inanis*; e. g. *We take part in your deliberations*, *socii sumus consiliorum*; *this man is destitute of all learning*, *est omnis eruditio nis expers*; *the harbor is wholly filled with ships*, *portus est plenissimus navium*. Among these, those denoting plenty or want

govern also the ablative; but *plenus*, in Cicero, almost always the genitive.

(2) By adjectives which contain the idea of *power*, or the contrary; viz. *potens*, *compos*, *impotens*, e. g. *this man is capable of controlling, can control his desires*, *hic homo potens est suarum cupiditatum*. Classic writers construct only *compos* with the genitive, not *potens* and *impotens*, yet the genitive is not to be rejected with these.

(3) By adjectives of *likeness* or *unlikeness*; e. g. *Thou art like my brother*, *tu mei fratri est similis*; *like the truth*, or *probable*, *veri similis*. These also govern the dative. See § 166. 8. Cicero oftener connects the genitive than the dative, with these, whether mental or corporeal resemblance is denoted. Generally the genitive is used, when the similarity or dissimilarity appears to belong to the *nature* of the thing, while the dative denotes likeness or unlikeness in the *external appearance*. But we can only say, *mei similis, my like; veri similis; very rarely with the dative, vero*.

Examples.

The mind is interested in¹ three periods, the present, past² and future. Man is an animal endowed with³ reason³ and wisdom. Among all animals, man alone⁴ partakes of speech⁵ and thought⁶. The ancient Germans lived almost always without⁷ peace. Cassius participated in all the deliberations⁸ of Brutus. The house of Antony was usually⁹ full of drunkards¹⁰. I have had a night full of fear¹¹ and misery¹². The Roman provinces were filled¹³ with traders¹⁴. Publius Crassus was unlike the other Crassi. Phidias enclosed¹⁵ an image¹⁶ like himself, in the shield¹⁷ of Minerva. All who possess virtue, are happy. Every plan¹⁹ of this man is wholly destitute²⁰ of prudence. Wild beasts²¹ are without²² reason and speech.

¹ *particeps esse* (to be interested in). ² *praeteritus*. ³ *plenus*. ³ *ratio*. ⁴ *solus*. ⁵ *oratio*. ⁶ *cogitatio*. ⁷ *expers*. ⁸ *consilium socius esse* (to participate in deliberation). ⁹ *plerumque*. ¹⁰ *ebruis*. ¹¹ *timor*. ¹² *miseria*. ¹³ *refertus*. ¹⁴ *negotiator*. ¹⁵ *includere*. ¹⁶ *forma*. ¹⁷ *clypeus*. ¹⁸ *compos* (who possesses). ¹⁹ *consilium*. ²⁰ *inanissimus*. ²¹ *fera* (wild beast). ²² *expers*.

GENITIVE OF WORTH AND PRICE.

153. The Latins express worth or price by adjectives in the genitive, where we often use adverbs. Let the following words be noticed ; *highly, greatly, much, magni; more highly, more, pluris* (not *majoris*) ; *very highly, very much, maximi, or plurimi; little, not highly, not much, parvi; less, minoris; very little, least of all, minimi; how highly, how much, how, quanti; so highly, so much, so, tanti; nothing at all, in no respect, nihil; as much as, as highly as, tantidem, non minoris;* and in the same manner other similar ones. Cicero does not express all the indefinite specifications of price by the genitive. He says only, *quanti, tanti, tantidem, pluris, minoris, and maximi.* The others he puts in the ablative, and therefore says, *magnō, permagnō, plurimo, parvo, minimo, nihilo, dimidio,* etc. Comp. § 194.

The verbs which belong here, are, *to value, to esteem, aestimare, facere, pendere, putare, habere; to be valued, to be esteemed, to be worth, aestimari, fieri, pendi, putari, haberi, esse; to buy, emere; to sell, vendere; to be sold, to be put to sale, vendi, venire, venale esse; to cost, stare, constare.*

Some examples : *I estsem Plato much, but Socrates more, Platonem magni aestimo, sed Socratem pluris; I value Cornelius Nepos far less than Liry, mihi multo minoris est; the orations of Demosthenes are considered of the greatest value, maximi (plurimi) aestimantur (fiunt, penduntur, putantur, habentur, sunt); for how much did you purchase this? quanti hoc emisti? anger has already cost many men much, magnō stetit, not magni; at that time a talent was worth so much, tanti erat; Coelius hired the house for a small price, non magnō or parvo conduxit; this is of great value to me, magni est; of greater value, pluris est.*

Examples.

To act considerately is more valuable, than to think wisely. The Romans sold cooks¹ at a higher price, than even² horses; and scarcely any one was valued higher than a cook. How highly must virtue be valued ! Themistocles did not value justice so highly, as³ his contemporary⁴ Aristides, who always thought more of just plans⁵, than of useful ones. If we do not value honor highly, it is our duty not to serve⁶ the peo-

ple. Thy letter will always be of great value to me. As there is no part of our body, which is not worth less, than we ourselves, so the whole⁷ world is worth more, than any⁸ part of the universe⁹. In no part of this island was grain¹⁰ so dear, as¹¹ at Syracuse. Every one will be as highly esteemed¹² by his friends, as he esteems himself. I sold the tithes¹³ higher than the others did. You purchased this country-seat¹⁴ for the same price, at which the former¹⁵ possessor had purchased it.

¹coquus. ²ipse. ³quantus. ⁴aequalis. ⁵consilium. ⁶servire. ⁷universa. ⁸aliquis. ⁹universum. ¹⁰frumentum. ¹¹quantus. ¹²facere. ¹³decuma. ¹⁴villa. ¹⁵prior.

GENITIVE WITH SOME VERBS DENOTING AN OPERATION OR STATE OF THE INTELLECT OR FEELINGS.

154. As, according to §§ 150 and 151, the adjectives, which denote an operation or state of the intellect or feelings, take the genitive, so some verbs which relate to the intellectual powers, or the state of the feelings, take the genitive. Here belong:

(1) Among those which relate to the intellectual powers, *To remember*, meminisse, recordari, reminisci; *to admonish* *some one of something*, *to bring something to his remembrance*, monere, admonere, commonere, and the impersonal phrase, mihi in mentem venit, commonefacere; *to forget*, oblivisci. With these verbs, the *person or thing which* one remembers, *which* occurs to us, *of which* one reminds another, and *which* one forgets, is put in the genitive. But *recordor* never takes a genitive denoting a person.

Meminisse, *reminisci* and *oblivisci* are often, and *recordari* almost always joined with the accusative, but *meminisse* in the sense of *to mention* and *recordari* with persons are joined with *de* and the ablative. *Monere* and *commonere* are more often construed with *de* than with the genitive, and both, as well as *admonere* and *commonefacere*, take also the accusative of the neuter pronouns, *hoc*, *id*, *illud*, and likewise *eam rem*. Finally, with *in mentem venit*, the nominative is also used; then the verb becomes personal.

Some examples: *You remember me*, meministi me i or me; *we recollect the past*, recordamur praeteritorum, or praeterita, orde praeteritūs; *I unwillingly recollect that man*, invitus recordor de hoc homine; *we forget injuries*, obliviscimur injuriarum or injuriās; *thou hast reminded me of my father's birth-day*, tu me monuisti diei natalis patris mei; *do you remind Terentia of the will*, Terentiam moneatis de testamento. *Parents often think of their absent children*, parentibus saepe in mentem venit liberorum absentium, or veniunt liberi absentes.

155. (2) Among those which relate to the state of the feelings, the following belong here: *To bewail, to have pity, to commiserate*, miserescere, miserēri, miserēre; *to be ashamed, to feel shame*, pudere; *to repent, poenitēre*; *to grieve, to be grieved, pigēre*; *to loathe, to be disgusted with, to be weary of*, taedēre. With all these, the object, be it a person or thing, to which the verb relates, is put in the genitive; i. e. those *persons or things which any one commiserates or pities, of which he is ashamed, respecting which he is ashamed, of which he repents, with which he is disgusted*, are all expressed in the genitive. But when this object is not a substantive or pronoun, but a verb, then the infinitive is generally used instead of the genitive, sometimes also a dependent clause with *quod* or an interrogative. The compounds, e. g. *suppudere, suppoenitere*, have the same construction as the simple verbs. *Miserari* and *commiserari*, like transitives, always govern the accusative.

But since, except the two verbs *miserescere* and *miserēri*, the others, viz. *miserēre, pudere, poenitēre, pigēre*, and *taedēre*, are impersonal verbs, and according to the usage of the Latin, the person connected with them, who feels shame, repents and grieves, etc., is put in the accusative, therefore, these verbs often govern an accusative and genitive both. This accusative we translate into English as the nominative.

Some examples: *I pity the unfortunate*, miseresco (misereor, me miseret) infeliciū; *I am ashamed of my disposition*, me pudet animi mei; *you repent of your negligence*, te poenitet negligētiae tuae; *we were grieved on account of our folly*, nos pugnit stultitiae nostrae; *you are weary of this labor*, vos taedet hujus laboris; *I repent of having done this*, me hoc fecisse poenitet; *Quintus regrets, that he injured your feelings*, Quintum poenitet, quod animum tuum offendit; *you will not repent of the progress you make*, quantum proficias non poenitebit.

Examples on §§ 154 and 155.

A wicked man sometimes¹ remembers² his deeds with bitter³ grief. Every man, at some time⁴, repents⁵ of time mis-spent⁶. Upright men rarely⁷ repent of their actions and plans⁸. There are men, who are neither ashamed of their disgrace⁹, nor repent of it. An industrious young man^{*} will never be weary¹⁰ of any labor, even the greatest. Thou dost often remember¹¹ thy virtues. Bocchus, king of Mauritania, had pity¹² on the condition¹³ of Jugurtha, his son-in-law¹⁴. The Parthians repented¹⁵, as it were¹⁶, of their victory over the Romans. When living¹⁷, we are often ashamed of something, of which, when dead¹⁸, we shall not be ashamed¹⁹. I thought** of this city, of those chapels²⁰ and temples, of the infant²¹ children, of the matrons and maidens. I am accustomed often to remember the time, when we were together. We often think of our country and our dangers. If any one ignorantly²² committed a fault²³ at Athens, he was privately²⁴ admonished²⁵ of his duty, by the judges. In our own calamity²⁶, we remember²⁷ the calamities of others. I shall never forget that night; for it reminds²⁸ me of the greatest dangers of my life. Neither we, nor others regret our activity²⁹ and interest³⁰ for³¹ the state. Many have repented of their follies³² too late. He, who is not ashamed of his faults and offences, deserves punishment. I shall never think³³ of repenting, that I³⁴ have not degenerated³⁵ from myself.

¹ interdum. ² recordari. ³ acerbus. ⁴ aliquando (at some time). ⁵ poenitēre. ⁶ male collocatus. ⁷ raro. ⁸ consilium. ⁹ infamia. ^{*} adolescens. ¹⁰ taedēre. ¹¹ in mentem venire. ¹² miserēre (to have pity on). ¹³ fortuna. ¹⁴ gener. ¹⁵ poenitēre. ¹⁶ quasi. ¹⁷ vivus. ¹⁸ mortuus. ¹⁹ pudēre. ^{**} in mentem venire (to think of). ²⁰ delubrum. ²¹ infans. ²² ignarus. ²³ peccare (to commit a fault). ²⁴ privātim. ²⁵ admonēre. ²⁶ casus. ²⁷ reminisci. ²⁸ monēre. ²⁹ industria. ³⁰ studium. ³¹ pro. ³² inepitiae. ³³ mihi venit in mentem. ³⁴ ipse. ³⁵ desincere.

GENITIVE AFTER VERBS OF ACCUSING, ACQUITTING AND CONDEMNING.

156. Verbs pertaining to judicial proceedings, which signify *to accuse*, *to criminate*, *to convict*, *to calumniate*, *to try*, *to acquit* and *condemn*, usually take the action, offence or

crime *of which* any one is accused, *on account of which* he is tried, *of which* he is acquitted, or *for which* he is condemned, in the genitive. The punishment also, to which any one is condemned, is often put in the genitive, sometimes also in the ablative; e. g. *To condemn to death*, is expressed by, *capitis* or *capite* *damnare* (not *mortis* or *morte*).

There are also other constructions instead of the above; e. g. *de* with *accusare*, *arguere*, *damnare*, *condemnare*, *absolvare*, and invariably in Cicero with *postulare*. With reference to an *assassination*, the Latins say, *Accusare inter sicarios*, *to accuse on account of an assassination*; in reference to *poisoning*, *de veneficiis*; and in reference to *an act of violence*, *de vi*. *De* is also used, but only when the crime is expressed periphrastically by a relative sentence, which contains the principal circumstance of the crime; e. g. *Accused on account of gold, which he was said to have taken, de auro, quod sumpsisse dicebatur*; but *auri sumpti* would also be right. After *damnare* and *condemnare*, punishment by *death* or *fine* is usually put in the ablative, more rarely in the genitive, other punishments if they do not consist in the *loss* of the object named, are expressed by *ad* or *in* and the accusative; e. g. *ad poenam*, *ad opus*, *ad bestias*, *in metallum* *damnare*, *to condemn to punishment*, *to labor*, etc. As the Latin says, *inter sicarios*, so also, *quaestio inter sicarios*, *inquiry respecting assassination*. But the indefinite *on account of an accusation*, *on account of crime*, is expressed by the ablative, not by the genitive—*crimine*, *criminibus*.

Some examples: *He accused him of treason*, *eum proditionis accusavit*; *they charge these with taking money*, *hos pecuniae captiae arcessunt*; *they convict him of no crime*, *eum nullius sceleris convincunt*; *the judge acquitted him of theft*, *furti absolvit*; *the judge sentenced him for theft*, *furti damnavit*; *Manlius was condemned to death*, *M. capititis (capite) damnatus est*; *Scaevola was condemned for other crimes*, *aliis criminibus condemnatus est*. The words *crime* and *charge* are omitted in Latin, before a definitely named crime.

Examples.

Nicodemus was condemned on account of theft. Lysanias, who had been condemned for embezzlement¹, lost² his goods and his senatorial rank³. In the times of the emperors, many innocent persons were condemned to death. Socrates was accused of the crime of impiety⁴, and sentenced to death by unjust judges. The seditious citizens were fined in a third part of their land. He was acquitted⁵ of the charge of dishonesty⁶. Orestes was accused of matricide⁷. Cicero defended Publius Sulla, whom Torquatus had

accused of participating⁸ in⁹ the conspiracy⁹ of Catiline. Julius Caesar arraigned¹⁰ C. Dolabella on account of his extortion¹¹. In the times of Sulla, many, who had been condemned for disgraceful¹² wickedness¹³, returned to Rome. Many were then accused of assassination and poisoning. The confidants¹⁴ of Cicero were condemned for committing¹⁵ violence¹⁶.

¹ peculatus. ² amittēre. ³ nomen senatorium (senatorial rank). ⁴ impietas. ⁵ absolvēre. ⁶ improbitas. ⁷ matricidium. ⁸ societas. ⁹ (genitive). ¹⁰ conjuratio. ¹¹ arcessēre. ¹² repetundae. ¹³ nefarius. ¹⁴ scelus. ¹⁵ familiaris. ¹⁶ (omitted). ¹⁷ vis.

GENITIVE WITH THE VERBS *INTERESSE* AND *REFERRE*.

157. The verbs *interesse* and *referre* are impersonal verbs, and hence, when used as such, are only in the third person singular, and signify *to concern*, *to be important*, *interesting*, *serviceable*, *useful*, *to relate to*, and the like. These belong under the genitive in two respects. For,

(1) The *person*, *for whom* anything is interesting and important, or *whom* anything concerns, is in the genitive. Since therefore this genitive is a possessive genitive, the genitives *mei*, *tui*, *sui*, *nostri*, *vestri*, *sui* from *ego*, *tu*, *sui*, *nos*, *vos*, *sui*, are not used, but the possessives *meus*, etc. The Latins here always say, *mea*, *tua*, *sua*, *nostra*, *vestra*, *sua*. It is questionable, in what case these are. If *ipse* (himself), or *unus*, *solus* (alone), are joined to these possessives, they must be put in the genitive. In like manner, when substantives follow in apposition, they are put in the genitive, or a relative clause is employed. But if a vocative is added, as an address to *tua* and *vestra*, it still remains in that case. But in the phrase, *both of us*, etc., *nostra utriusque* is not used, but *utriusque nostrum*. So also, *omnium nostrum* or *nostrum omnium*, etc., not *nostra omnium*. Compare § 105.

Some examples : *My brother is interested in this*, *mei fratri* interest; *my brothers are interested in this*, *meorum fratribus* interest; *it will interest me, you and all*, *mea, tua et omnium* inter-

rērit; *I myself was interested*, mea ipsius interērat; *I alone was interested*, mea unius interērat; *it ought to interest you, my friend*, tua, mei amici, debet interesse; *that is of very little importance to me, who am the eldest*, id mea minime refert, qui sum natu maximus; *no one was more interested, than you, beloved friend*, nullius magis, quam tua, dilecte amice, interērat.

The verb *refert*, in the classic writers, is joined only with the possessives *mea*, *tua*, etc.

158. (2) *How much* a person is interested in anything, *how important* anything is for a person, is also often put in the genitive. The neuter genitive of such words is used; e. g. *Much*, magni (not multi); *very much*, permagni, plurimi; *more*, pluris; *most of all*, plurimi; *little*, parvi; *less*, minoris; *least of all*, minimi; *very little*, perparvi, minimi; *how much*, quanti; *so much*, tanti; *just as much*, tantidem, etc., all of which are genitives of worth.

But, instead of the genitive of adjectives, their adverbs or their neuter is frequently employed. The adverb or neuter is used in the case of all other words, whose genitive is used but seldom, or not at all. Therefore, the Latins say, *Multum*, magnopere, vehementer, *much*; *permultum*, plurimum, *very much*; *plus*, magis, *more*; *plurimum*, maxime, *most of all*; *parum*, *little*; *minus*, *less*; *minime*, *least of all*; *quantum*, *how much*; *aliquantum*, *somewhat*; *tantum*, *so much*; *nihil*, *nothing*; *quid*, *what, how much*.

Some examples: *I am much interested in this*, mea magni (multum) interest; *the judge is more interested in this*, judicis pluris (plus) interest. *As much as thy father is interested in this*, so much am I, quanti (quantum) tui patris interest, tanti (tantum) mea; *it is of no importance*, nihil interest.

159. (3) *That in which* any one is interested, *which* is important to any one, *which* concerns any one, is expressed by the infinitive, by the accusative with the infinitive, by *at* with the subjunctive, or, in a negative sentence, by *ne*, but

not with *si*, *cum*, or *quod*, and in interrogative sentences, by interrogatives; e. g. *It concerns me to know this*, interest mea *hoc scire*; *it concerns me that you know the whole matter accurately*, interest mea, *te totam rem accurate scire*, or *ut totam rem accurate sci as*; *it does not concern you, whether you know this*, nihil tua interest, *hoccine sci as*. That *in view of* which any one is interested in a matter, is expressed by *ad* with the Acc. e. g. *It is of great importance to my honor, that I should return as soon as possible to the city*, magni *ad honorem nostrum* interest.

But when in English, the preposition, *on account of*, *for*, or *about* is used with a substantive, e. g. *On account of my health*, *on account of the health of my father*, in this case, neither a preposition nor ablative is used, but the idea must be expressed by its own appropriate sentence, which may be either by the accusative and the infinitive, *ut* with the subjunctive, or by an interrogative word, thus: *I am concerned for the health of my father*, *for my health*, may be, *pater meum esse sanum*, *me esse sanum*; or *ut pater sanus sit*, *pater sanusne sit*, *ut sanus sim* or *sanusne sim*. In other connections, the propositions are passive; e. g. *What do you care for my freedom?* *quid tua refert*, *me liberari*, or *ut liberer*, or *liberer-ne*? That form of construction, which is most appropriate, is always to be selected.

Examples.

The reader¹ of this book must be interested to know something concerning the life of the writer². That which concerns me less, perhaps delights³ you more. No one is so much concerned for the preservation⁴ of life, as⁵ those who perform⁶ noble⁷ deeds. All of us must be much interested for the refutation⁸ and removal⁹ of superstition. It greatly concerns the state to distinguish¹⁰ itself by dignity. I have omitted¹¹ what did not concern you. It does not concern us, whether¹² you wrote this, or not¹³. What does the conquest¹⁴ of Antony concern us? Thy immediate¹⁵ arrival is

of very great importance¹⁶ for thy domestic affairs¹⁷. It is very important¹⁸ for us to be together¹⁹. It is important for us both, that I should visit²⁰ you. It was more important for the Athenians to have strong²¹ roofs²² upon their houses²³, than the most beautiful ivory²⁴ image²⁵ of Minerva. We all have a very great concern for thy life. You will perceive²⁶, that this is more important for me, than for you. I know how important it is for our state, that all the troops assemble²⁷ in one place. Many of the Athenians were very much concerned on account of the expulsion²⁸ of Aristides. Good children will always be much concerned for the increase of their patrimony²⁹. All the members of the body agree³⁰, because the preservation of each is important for the whole body. Of what importance³¹ is it to my interest, what the Persians may be doing?

¹ lector. ² scriptor. ³ delectare. ⁴ servare. ⁵ quantus. ⁶ perficere.
⁷ egregius. ⁸ refellere. ⁹ removere. ¹⁰ eminere. ¹¹ omittere. ¹² utram
 (with the subj.). ¹³ nec ne (or not). ¹⁴ vincere. ¹⁵ quam primum. ¹⁶ in-
 teresse. ¹⁷ res familiaris. ¹⁸ referre. ¹⁹ una esse (to be together).
²⁰ convenire. ²¹ firmus. ²² tectum. ²³ domicilium. ²⁴ ex ebore. ²⁵ sig-
 num. ²⁶ intelligere. ²⁷ convenire. ²⁸ expellere. ²⁹ patrimonium. ³⁰ con-
 sentire. ³¹ referre.

GENITIVE AFTER SOME OTHER VERBS.

160. *Egēre* and *indigēre*, *to have need*, *to want*, also take the genitive; e. g. *I have need of consolation*, *egeo consolatiō* (*solatiī*). They often take the ablative. See § 197.

Examples.

The severity¹ of disease causes us to² need medicine. Those who have least need of another³, are usually⁴ the most liberal⁵ and beneficent⁶. All these exercises and movements do not so much⁷ need art as effort⁸.

¹ gravitas. ² ut (see § 541, d.). ³ alter. ⁴ plerumque. ⁵ liberalis.
⁶ beneficetus. ⁷ tam (so much). ⁸ labor.

GENITIVE AFTER CERTAIN ADVERBS.

161. Some adverbs of *quantity* and *place* govern the genitive.

(1) Adverbs of *quantity*, i. e. such adverbs, as denote *plenty* or *want*, take the genitive. Here belong, *enough*, *satis*; *in abundance*, *abundant*, *abunde*, *affatim*; *too little*, *little*, *parum*; e. g. *Money enough*, *satis pecuniae*; *too little attention*, *parum animi attentionis*.

(2) Adverbs of *place*, especially when they are used in a figurative sense. Here belong, *how far*, *to what degree*, *quo*; *thither*, *so far*, *to such a degree*, *eo*; *as far as this*, *so far*, *huc*; e. g. *To what degree of madness*, *quo furoris*, *quo amentiae*; *so far in audacity*, *to such a degree of audacity*, *eo audacie*; *so far in adversity*, *to such a state of adversity*, *huc malorum*. Although this usage belongs after the classic period, yet it is not to be rejected.

When these and other adverbs are not used figuratively, they are still often followed by the genitives *terrarum*, *gentium*, *locorum*, for the sake of emphasis, as in our phrase, *where in all the world?* e. g. *Where, I pray, is he?* *where in all the world is he?* *ubi est terrarum (gentium, locorum)?* *Where in all the world can he have gone?* *quo terrarum abiit?* *There is peace nowhere upon the earth, nusquam terrarum est pax.*

Examples.

He who is contented, has enough wealth. Many men use¹ too little care and labor, and yet² demand³ an abundant reward⁴. The Roman empire at length rose⁵ to such⁶ a degree of greatness, that¹⁹ it was destroyed⁷ by its own⁸ strength. Caesar left⁹ a sufficient garrison¹⁰ in his camp. Truly¹¹, no where on earth had old age¹² a more honored¹³ spot, than at Lacedemon. In the battle near Cannae, Lentulus said to Æmilius Paulus, *Flee! even without thy death, here are tears and grief¹⁴ enough.* A certain¹⁵ king of Thrace rose¹⁶ to such a pitch of haughtiness¹⁷ and madness¹⁸, that¹⁹ he justly²⁰ merited²¹ the anger of Trajan. Ye yourselves seem not to know, how far you have gone²² in frenzy²³. Wherever²⁴ upon the earth there is a man, there the eye of God sees him. Marius despatched persons, in order that they might ascertain²⁵, where in all the world Jugurtha was. Cyrus left in his camp an abundance of wine. Epaminondas went²⁶ so far in his love for truth, that¹⁹ he never falsified²⁷.

¹adhibēre. ²tamen. ³postulare. ⁴praemium. ⁵crescōre. ⁶eo (to such a degree). ⁷conficēre. ⁸ipse. ⁹refinquēre. ¹⁰praeſidium. ¹¹sane. ¹²senectus. ¹³honoratus. ¹⁴luctus. ¹⁵quidam. ¹⁶procedēre. ¹⁷superbia. ¹⁸furor. ¹⁹ut ²⁰jure. ²¹merēri. ²²progrēdi. ²³amentia. ²⁴ubicumque. ²⁵explorare. ²⁶progrēdi. ²⁷mentiri.

For the genitive with some names of place, see §§ 67—69.

THE DATIVE.

162. The dative stands chiefly in all those sentences which denote that something is designed *for* some person or thing ; hence it shows *to whom*, *to what*, *for whom*, *for whose advantage* or *disadvantage* something happens ; also, *to whom* (to what) something is directed, *to whom* something comes. Thus in the following phrases : *My father has not written to me (mihi) for a time*; *my brothers came to help (auxilio) me (mihi)*; *I have written this book for beginners (tironibus)*; *I allow you (tibi) no reward*; *he has bought the garden for me (mihi)*; *war is destructive to most men, (plerisque hominibus)*. And so in many similar phrases. The adjectives, which govern this case, denote, generally, the relation of *advantage* or *disadvantage* to a person or thing. Many verbs also which take the dative, express one or the other of these relations. And probably most verbs, which have this case, in their original signification, expressed such a relation ; but this for us has been wholly lost by a difference of translation.

DATIVE AFTER ADJECTIVES.

163. There are many adjectives which govern the dative, and they denote, generally, *for whom*, *to whom*, *for what*, *to what*. Adjectives belonging here are the following.

(1) Those which denote *usefulness*, *injury*, *destruction*, viz. *utilis*, *inutilis*, *noxius*, *salutāris*, *salūbris* (*salūber*), *perniciosus*, *exitiosus*, *fatālis*, *grāvis*, *periculōsus*, etc.; e. g. *This water is healthful for the human body (corpōri humāno)*; *this plan is dangerous for the state, reipublicae*.

(2) Those which denote *necessity* and *importance*, viz. *necessarius*, *gravis*, *magnus*; e. g. *This language is necessary for merchants, mercatoribus*.

(3) Those which denote *pleasure*, *pain* and *trouble*, viz. *jucundus*, *gratus*, *acceptus*, *dulcis*, *suavis*, *ingratus*, *injucundus*, *molestus*, *gravis*, *acerbus*, *amarus*, etc.; e. g. *Nothing is more pleasant to men, hominibus; grapes are, at first, very bitter to the taste, gustui*.

(4) Those which denote *ease* and *difficulty*, viz. *facilis*, *levis*, *difficilis*, *gravis*, *durus*, *arduus*, etc.; e. g. *This labor is not difficult for us, nobis*.

164. (5) Those which denote *skill*, *fitness* and *unfitness*, viz. *aptus*, *habilis*, *idoneus*, *accommodatus*, *bonus*, *alienus*. The first four, instead of the dative, often have the preposition *ad*, but only with things, not with persons, and *alienus* generally has the ablative with and without *a*, and sometimes, though rarely, the genitive. Hence it is said, *The place is suitable (aptus) for ambush, insidiis or ad insidias; these passions are conformable to (accommo-dati) human nature, (naturae humanae, or ad naturam humanam); this is unsuitable (alienum) for that cause (illi causae, ab illa causa, illa causa, and illius causae)*.

165. (6) Those which denote *favor*, *friendship*, *esteem* or *hatred*, viz. *amicus*, *propitius*, *opportūnus*, *intimus*, *familiaris*, *carus*, *infestus*, *inimicus*, *hostis*, *infensus*, *contrarius*, *iniquus*, *alienus*, *adversarius*, etc.; e. g. *No one is more friendly to me, than Atticus, mihi nemo est amicior Attico; the night is favorable for sleep, somno opportūna; Clodius was always hostile to the virtues, virtutibus hostis*. Many of these adjectives admit also other constructions; e. g. *useful for a purpose*, *utilis a d rem*; *kindly disposed to any one*, *benevolus erga aliquem*, etc.

It is here to be noticed, that the words *amicus*, *inimicus*, *familiaris*, *intimus*, *iniquus*, *adversarius* and *hostis* are considered by the Latins in a two-fold relation, either as substantives or adjectives. As adjectives

tives, they govern the dative, but as substantives, the genitive. They can therefore be translated differently, i. e. either adjectively or substantively. In the last case, we say, *friend*, *enemy*, *intimate*. Hence, *Thou art my father's friend*, can be expressed either, *tus patris mei amicus*, or *patri meo amicus*; *Hieronymus was an enemy to the Romans*, *Romanorum*, or *Romanis hostis* (*inimicus*).

If the *friendship* and *hatred* spoken of refer to the personal pronouns, *I*, *thou*, *his*, *we*, *ye*, *their*, then the dative *michi*, *tibi*, *sibi*, *nobis*, *vobis* and *sibi* must be used, if *amicus*, *inimicus*, etc., are considered as adjectives; but *meus*, *tuus*, *suus*, *noster*, *vester* and *suus*, if they are considered as substantives. Thus, *est meus amicus*, or *est michi amicus*; *he is our familiar friend*, *ille est noster familiaris*, or *nobis familiaris*. The comparatives and superlatives which are joined to the English substantives contained in the above words, are expressed in Latin by *amicior*, *amicissimus*; *inimicior*, *inimicissimus*; *familiarior*, *familiarissimus*. *Intimus* and *hostis* are not compared. But the comparatives are used only as adjectives, and hence govern only the dative; while the superlatives are often, as substantives, joined with the genitive or with the possessive pronouns; e. g. *He is a very warm friend of mine*, *michi amicior*; *he is my warmest friend*, *michi* or *meus amicissimus*. So with *iniquus*—*contra iniquos meos*; *nonnulli nostri iniqui*, *omnibus iniquissimis meis*. Indeed *adversarius*, even as a substantive and qualified by *acerrimus*, is also joined with the dative, e. g. *acerrimus virtuti adversarius*, unless the dative is to be referred more to the adjective *acerrimus*, than to the substantive *adversarius*.

166. (7) Those which signify an *inclination* and *readiness* for something, viz. *proclivis*, *promptus*, *propensus*, *paratus*. Yet the first three, when things are spoken of, are more frequently followed by the preposition *ad*, when persons, by *in*, and *paratus*, signifying *prompt*, *ready*, by *ad*, and when it contains the additional idea of *willing*, by the dative; e. g. *Men are subject to various passions*, *ad varias perturbationes* (*variis perturbationibus*) *proclivis*.

(8) Those which denote *equality* or *inequality*, *likeness* or *unlikeness*, *conformity* and *agreement*, viz. *par*, *aequalis*, *impar*, *dispar*, *inaequalis*, *similis*, *dissimilis*, *consentaneus*, *diversus*, *absonus*, etc.; e. g. *Let the penalty be equal* (*par*) *to the crime* (*sceleri*); *there is nothing like* (*simile*) *it* (*ei*); *Cicero's death was not in accordance with* (*consentanea*) *his glory* (*gloriae*).

The adjective *aequalis*, signifying *of the same age*, *cotemporary*, is used also as a substantive. Hence it can take a dative or a genitive; e. g. *Aristides was cotemporary* (*a e-*

quālis) with Themistocles (Themistocli or Themistoclis); you are my cotemporary, mihi aequālis, or meus aequālis; you are of the same age with us, vos nobis aequales, or nostri aequales.

Similis and dissimilis are found very often with the genitive also, especially in Cicero, who does not, in the use of these, distinguish between mental and bodily resemblance. See § 152. 3. The adjective *consentaneus* is also followed by *cum*.

167. (9) Those which denote *nearness, contiguity, what is common, relationship*, viz. *propinquus, finitimus, vicinus, confinis, communis, proprius, affinis, necessarius, cognatus*, etc.; e. g. *Phrygia borders upon the Troad, Troādi est confinis; death is common to every age, omni aetati; you are related to both, utrique necessarius (cognatus).* *Proprius* is very often followed by the genitive, and always in Cicero.

Examples on §§ 162—167.

No one among the Roman kings was more like Romulus, than Tullus Hostilius, and like Numa Pompilius, than Ancus Marcius. Too long¹ watching² is not safe³ for the eyes. The day of the battle of Cannae was very important for the Romans and Hannibal. The mind⁴ of men often does not agree⁵ with their speech. Idleness, which is opposed⁶ to all effort⁷, is pleasing to the mass⁸ of the people. The grandson of Lucius Scipio was like his father in his countenance⁹, but like all abandoned¹⁰ men in his life¹¹. The people were enemies¹² to those, who had banished¹³ Alcibiades. Many plants are injurious to the inexperienced¹⁴. Do not¹⁵ trust¹⁶ him who is more friendly¹⁷ to a foreign land than to his native country. These scholars* are our friends. We are rich, not only for ourselves, but also for our children, parents, relations, and especially¹⁸ for the state. There was that in thy house, which was fatal to both of them. There is nothing which can be foreign to the art¹⁹ of oratory. Too strong emotions of the mind are the greatest enemies to inward²⁰ peace²¹. Affection²² for children makes²³ the parents ardent friends of the state. Demosthenes was of the same age²⁴ as Philip, king of Macedon. This language was not difficult²⁵ for me to learn. Nature has given to man a form²⁶, which is suitable²⁷ and fit²⁸ for the human mind. The horse, the ox

and the reindeer²⁹ are the most useful animals for the Europeans³⁰. That year was equally³¹ fatal to me and the country. The writers which you recommend to me, are not sufficiently suited³² to me. For the weary³³, any ground³⁴ is a couch³⁵. The investigation of truth is eminently³⁶ peculiar to man.

¹ longior (too long). ² vigilae. ³ salutaris. ⁴ animus. ⁵ consentaneus. ⁶ inimicum esse (to be opposed to). ⁷ intentio. ⁸ vulgus (mass of people). ⁹ facies. ¹⁰ perditus. ¹¹ vita. ¹² inimicus. ¹³ expellere. ¹⁴ imperitus. ¹⁵ ne. ¹⁶ credere. ¹⁷ amicus. ¹⁸ doctus homo. ¹⁹ maxime. ²⁰ ars oratoria (art of oratory). ²¹ animi. ²² tranquillitas. ²³ caritas. ²⁴ facere. ²⁵ aequalis. ²⁶ difficilis. ²⁷ figura. ²⁸ habilis. ²⁹ aptus. ³⁰ rheno. ³¹ Europaeus. ³² aequus. ³³ idoneus. ³⁴ huinus. ³⁵ cubile. ³⁶ imprimis.

DATIVE AFTER VERBS.

168. Here, in the first place, the dative is used with verbs which signify *to obey some one*, alicui parere, obedire, obsequi, audientem esse (but only with dicto); *to benefit*, *to injure some one*, alicui prodesse, officere; *to promise*, alicui promittere, polliceri, spondere; *to write to some one*, alicui scribere; *to give to some one*, alicui dare; *to send to some one*, alicui mittere; *to trust, to believe some one*, and so many others. Instead of the dative, the Latin sometimes uses a preposition with its appropriate case; e. g. *To write, to send to any one*, may be, alicui or ad aliquem scribere, mittere.

It has been shown above, § 162, that the person or thing for whom or which anything happened or was done, is put in the dative. This dative in English is very frequently governed by the preposition *for*; e. g. *He conquered the enemy for himself, not for his country*, sibi, non patriae; *we do not learn for school, but for the whole of life*, non scholae, sed toti vitae; *for whom do you lay up your riches*, cui paras tuas divitias?

Hence the following verbs take the dative of the person or thing, *for which*, or *for the sake of which* anything is done: cupere alicui, *to wish well to one, to be friendly to, to favor*;

formidare, timere, metuere, horrere alicui, to fear for, to be in fear for some one, on account of some one; petere alicui, to ask for one, to go for one; cavere, consulere, prospicere, providere alicui, to take care for some one; quaerere alicui, to seek for one, etc.

Examples.

In this state¹, rewards are appointed² for good actions³. Caesar left the fourteenth legion, as a defence⁴ for the baggage⁵. It is our duty to learn, not only for ourselves, but also for other men. As Helen was the cause of war and destruction⁶ to the Trojans, so was Antony, to the Roman empire. Books on eloquence have no more⁷ been written for him, who is destitute⁸ of genius⁹, than books on agriculture¹⁰, for barren¹¹ lands. Faustulus provided¹² for the education of Romulus and Remus. Tiberius sought¹³ the praetorship for his son. The aged often take care¹⁴ for a second¹⁵ century; for they sometimes¹⁶ plant¹⁷ trees, which are useful¹⁸ for a second century; thus they do not plant for themselves, but for posterity¹⁹. There are many, who do not favor²⁰ you. God provided²¹, from the beginning, for the good²² of the whole world. The senatorial order²³ had most carefully²⁴ provided²⁵ for the veterans. To consult²⁶ the interests of the people more than his own will²⁷, is a proof of an upright senator. We apprehend²⁸ no²⁹ danger to ourselves from a friend. The life of parents is, as it were³⁰, a pattern³¹ for children. The honorable³² reputation³³ of parents is the best portion³⁴ for children. Innocence is a source³⁵ of happiness³⁶ for the unfortunate. Money is a punishment for the avaricious³⁷. The arts and sciences³⁸ are riches for the poor, an ornament³⁹ for the rich, and a delight⁴⁰ for the aged⁴¹.

¹ civitas. ² constitutus. ³ recte facta (good actions). ⁴ praesidium. ⁵ impedimenta, -orum. ⁶ exitum. ⁷ non magis (no more). ⁸ deesse. ⁹ ingenium. ¹⁰ cultura agri. ¹¹ sterilis. ¹² providere. ¹³ petere. ¹⁴ prospicere (to take care for). ¹⁵ alter. ¹⁶ interdum. ¹⁷ serete. ¹⁸ prodesse. ¹⁹ posteritas. ²⁰ cupere. ²¹ providere. ²² salus. ²³ ordo senatorius. ²⁴ diligentissime. ²⁵ cavere. ²⁶ consulere. ²⁷ voluntas. ²⁸ metuere. ²⁹ non. ³⁰ instar. ³¹ regula. ³² honestus. ³³ fama. ³⁴ dos. ³⁵ (omitted in Lat.). ³⁶ felicitas. ³⁷ avarus. ³⁸ littorae. ³⁹ ornamentum. ⁴⁰ delectatio. ⁴¹ senex.

169. With the foregoing verbs, we generally supply in translation the prepositions *to* or *for*, but there are many

others construed with the dative, which are translated, as if they governed an accusative, e. g. *alicū favēre*, *to favor some one*; *alicū imperare*, *to command some one*. It is, therefore, necessary for beginners to consult some good lexicon, in order to learn what cases particular verbs govern. But as the lexicons will not explain this with sufficient fulness, the most important words which govern the dative, will here be mentioned.

170. (1) *Parcēre alicū*, *to spare one*; *nocēre*, *to injure one*; *bene dicēre*, *to praise one*; *male dicēre*, *to abuse, to curse one*; *studēre*, *to pursue, to study something, to apply one's self to*; *persuadēre*, *to persuade, to convince one*; *medēri*, *to heal one*; *irasci* and *succensēre*, *to be angry with one*; *ignoscēre*, *to pardon one*; *nubēre*, *to marry one (a man)*; *invidēre*, *to envy one*; *arridēre*, *to smile at, to laugh at*; *placēre*, *to please one*. Some examples: *He spares me alone*, *mī hī soli parcit*; *my brother studies or applies himself to this art*, *hū i c a r t i studet*; *I heal the patient*, *medēor a e g r o t o*; *whom have you persuaded?* *cui persuadisti?* *I am angry at you*, *succenseo (irascor) tibi*; *Elpinice had married her brother Cimon*, *f r a t r i s u o Cimoni nupserat*; *I envy you*, *tibi invideo*. That *for*, or *on account of* which any one is envied, is put by the Latins, either in the accusative, e. g. *I envy you wealth*, or *you on account of your wealth*, *tibi invideo d i v i t i a s*; or more frequently the person who is envied, is joined with the other substantive (i. e. agrees with or is governed by it), which is put in the dative; e. g. *invideo t u i s d i v i t i i s*; further, *I envy my brother on account of his renown*, *invideo f r a t r i s laudi*, or *fratri laudem*. That *of which* any one is persuaded or convinced, is expressed by the accusative, but only of a neuter pronoun, otherwise, by *de* with the ablative, or the accusative and infinitive. That *to which* any one is persuaded, by *ut*. See § 377.

171. Since, as already remarked, the English verbs, by which the above Latin ones are translated, are generally transitive and govern an accusative, they have, also, (when an accusative of a person can

be joined with them, e. g. *to envy one, to spare, to convince*), a full passive in all the persons; e. g. *I am envied, thou art envied, he is envied*, etc. But the corresponding Latin verbs, since they do not govern an accusative, which in the passive might become the subject-nominative, have in the passive only a third person singular, and this is to be regarded only as neuter, without a subject; e. g. *invidetur, invidetur, invisum est*, etc. Hence, in order to express the persons *I, thou, he (she), we, ye, they*, these must be put in the dative. Hence, *I am envied, is m i h i invidetur, etc. I am persuaded, m i h i persuadetur, and sometimes m i h i persuadeo*. And so in the other tenses and modes; e. g. in the imperfect, *I have been (we have been) envied, m i h i (n o b i s) invisum est*. So where the accusative and the infinitive occurs; e. g. *That I have been envied, m i h i invisum esse*. If an auxiliary verb, *can, might, is accustomed*, etc., is connected with the infinitive and contains the subject in itself, e. g. *I can, then this auxiliary verb can be used only in the third person singular, and the subject must be in the dative, governed by the infinitive*; e. g. *I can be envied, m i h i potest invideri; we are accustomed to be envied, n o b i s invideri solet*. The same construction is used with all the other verbs above mentioned, in the passive. It is to be noticed lastly, however, that the verb *nubere* has a passive participle, *nupta*, in the singular and plural, with which the *person (female)* who is given in marriage, is put in the nominative, but *he to whom she is given*, can be put either in the dative, or in the ablative with the preposition *cum*; e. g. *Elpinice had been given in marriage to her brother, or had been married to her brother, Elpinice fratri suo (cum fratre suo) nupta erat*.

Examples.

Physicians heal very severe¹ diseases with powerful² remedies³. The poor envy the rich. Cotys, king of Thrace, spared no one. Good parents do not envy their children on account of the fortune, which sometimes⁴ falls to their lot⁵; they rather⁶ rejoice, if fortune smiles⁷ so much⁸ upon the efforts⁹ of their children. Niobe had, in Lydia, married Amphilion, the founder¹⁰ of Thebes. When Thebes was destroyed¹¹, the house of the poet Pindar was spared. Most men have been persuaded¹² that¹³ the soul is immortal. When Xerxes had taken¹⁴ Athens, not even¹⁵ the temples of the gods were spared. It is our duty to pursue¹⁶ a useful employment¹⁷. The poor are not easily¹⁸ convinced, that¹⁹ God cares²⁰ for them as much as²¹ for the rich. The virgin²² married him, to whom her sister had been married. I am not accustomed to be angry at my friends rashly²³. From childhood, devote²⁴ yourself to the most valuable²⁵ arts and learning²⁶. Men envy most²⁷ their equals²⁸, or their inferiors,—but their superiors also are envied. The glory and the

praise of others are especially wont to be envied. If you wish to heal any²⁰ disease, first ascertain²⁰ the nature of the body. Thales did not convince his countryman³¹ Anaximander of this³². I shall not be convinced of this. You have not been able, as I hear, to be persuaded. In India, many wives are accustomed to be married to one man³³. The higher are envied less, than those who are lower. Marcellus replied to the Syracusans, I will³⁴ spare the citizens and the houses of the city. Good men do not envy others on account of their advantage³⁵.

¹ gravior. ² validus. ³ remedium. ⁴ interdum. ⁵ contingere (to fall to one's lot). ⁶ potius. ⁷ favere. ⁸ tantopere. ⁹ labor. ¹⁰ conditor. ¹¹ diroere. ¹² persuadéri. ¹³ (acc. with inf.). ¹⁴ capere. ¹⁵ ne . . . quidem (*templa* is to be placed between). ¹⁶ studere. ¹⁷ res. ¹⁸ non facile. ¹⁹ (acc. with inf.). ²⁰ prospicere. ²¹ non minus (as much as). ²² virgo. ²³ temere. ²⁴ studere. ²⁵ bonus. ²⁶ disciplina. ²⁷ maxime. ²⁸ par. ²⁹ aliquis. ³⁰ cognoscere. ³¹ popularis. ³² hoc. ³³ singuli. ³⁴ velle. ³⁵ commodum.

172. (2) The verb *esse* (to be), in three relations, governs the dative.

(a) The Latins commonly use it, for *habere*, *to have*, with the dative of a person or thing, which has something, the thing possessed being put as the subject in the nominative; e. g. *Ciceron had a brother Quintus*, i. e. *there was to Cicero a brother Quintus*;—*I have two brothers*, i. e. *to me there are two brothers*. Hence in Latin, *Ciceroni erat Quintus frater*; *mihi duo sunt fratres*, where *habere* also can be used. Respecting *esse* with the genitive, see § 143.

173. (b) *Esse* often takes the dative, when it denotes *to* or *for* what something is, serves, contributes, or conduces. We express this relation in English, by the preposition *to* or *for*, when, in translating *esse*, we use the verbs, *to be*, *to serve*, *to conduct*, *to contribute*; e. g. *This conduces, contributes to our honor*, *hoc nō bī est hōnōrī*. This example shows, that with this dative, there is often joined the dative of the person for whom something is, serves, conduces and contributes. Instead of the dative of the person, in English we use the adjective agreeing with the second dative; sometimes the second dative is translated as if it were a genitive; e. g. *This conduces to my praise*, but the Latins never say, *hoc est*

meae laudi, but mihi laudi; this contributes to the praise of my father, hoc meo patri est laudi.

If a substantive thus constructed contains a *quality*, it can be translated into English by an adjective or in some other manner; e. g. *This is honorable, this gives, causes, brings honor.* So, *this is delightful, delights, gives delight, hoc est delectationi; this is a matter of interest, hoc est cordi, hoc est curae.* If, moreover, in English, an adjective in the comparative or superlative is used, then, as the adjective is translated by a substantive, a comparative, e. g. *major*, or a superlative, e. g. *maximus* or *summus*, must be joined with the substantive; or if *very* qualifies the adjective in English, *magnus* must be joined with the substantive in Latin, and the words *as* and *how* are expressed by *quantus*, and *so* by *tantus*; e. g. *This is honorable, est honōri; this is more honorable, mājōri honōri; this is most honorable, maximo (summo) honōri; it is very honorable, magno honōri; so honorable, tanto honōri; how, as honorable, quanto honōri.*

Finally, also *habere, ducere, dare, tribuere, vertere*, signifying *to reckon, to consider as, to impute*, are sometimes joined with such datives; e. g. *This is considered my praise, hoc mihi ducitur laudi.*

174. (c) When *esse, fieri* and infinitives, admit an adjective or participle as a predicate, this adjective or participle is usually put in the dative, if the pronoun or noun of which they are the predicate, is in the dative; e. g. *It is in my power to be happy, mihi licet esse beato; I succeed in becoming happy, mihi contigit fieri beato; A plebeian could not then become a consul, plebeio tum non licebat fieri consuli.* The case is similar, when in the phrase, *mihi est nomen*, (there is a name to me, I have a name, I am called), and the like, the definite name is put in the dative; e. g. *I am called Philip, mihi nomen est Philippo.* Besides the dative, which is the most usual case, the nominative

tive also, especially with foreign names, is employed; the genitive very rarely. The dative denoting the definite name is used also in the phrases, *alicui nomen dare* and *in dñe re*, *to give a name to one*; e. g. *The name Charles was given to the boy*, *puero nomen Carolo datum (inditum) est*.

Examples on §§ 172—174.

Those who have riches, are not always happy. Although the son of Tiberius had not yet¹ the lawful² years, he was, nevertheless, appointed³ pretor. To honor virtue brings⁴ disgrace⁵ to no one; but to cling⁶ to vice, brings the greatest disgrace. The laws of Lycurgus were very salutary⁷ for the Lacedemonians. The letters of others are more consolatory⁸ in troubles⁹, than our own¹⁰ reflection¹¹. Parents consider¹² it the greatest comfort, if fortune favors¹³ their children. It was not considered¹⁴ reputable¹⁵ for Fabius Pictor at Rome, that¹⁶ he painted; whence¹⁷ it is evident¹⁸, that¹⁹ it was not yet honorable to apply²⁰ one's self to the art of painting. As flowers, in spring, have a lively²¹ and fresh²² color, so also have we, as²³ children and youth, fresh strength. Man has a likeness to the Deity. Severity²⁴ is wont to be odious²⁵ to many men. In this office²⁶, thou canst be very useful to thy country. Every one has his custom²⁷. The indolent²⁸ always have holy-days. The fidelity and compassion²⁹ (shown) Marius were honorable³⁰ and commendable to the inhabitants of Minturnae³¹. Julius Caesar did not perceive, how dangerous³² this undertaking³³ would be to him. King Antiochus had two elephants, celebrated³⁴ for their names³⁵; the one was called Patroclus, the other Ajax. We all have memory and a desire for knowledge³⁶. A rich³⁷ house often brings disgrace³⁸ to its lord. Those men are permitted³⁹ to be timid⁴⁰ and indolent⁴¹, but we to be brave men. The surname Superbus was given⁴² to Tarquin, at Rome. The Romans called the boy Egerius, from⁴³ his poverty⁴⁴. We are not allowed⁴⁵ to be unthankful⁴⁶. A Roman patrician could⁴⁷ not be a tribune of the people⁴⁸. Thy health⁴⁹ causes⁵⁰ us great anxiety⁵¹. What you impute⁵² to others as a fault, do not consider⁵³ as your praise. All this cannot be considered honorable to you.

¹ nondum (not yet). ² legitimas. ³ fieri. ⁴ esse. ⁵ turpitudo. ⁶ adhaerere. ⁷ salus. ⁸ solatium. ⁹ malum. ¹⁰ proprius (our own). ¹¹ cogitatio.

¹³ducēre. ¹³favēre. ¹⁴dare. ¹⁵laus. ¹⁶quod. ¹⁷ex quo. ¹⁸apparēre.
¹⁹(acc. with inf.) ²⁰studēre. ²¹vivus. ²²intēger. ²³(is omitted in
Lat.). ²⁴severitas. ²⁵odium. ²⁶honor. ²⁷mos (comp. § 58). ²⁸piger.
²⁹misericordia. ³⁰honor. ³¹Minturnensis (inhab. of Mintur.). ³²peri-
culum. ³³coepit. ³⁴celēber. ³⁵cognomen. ³⁶scientia. ³⁷amplus.
³⁸dedēcus. ³⁹licēre. ⁴⁰timidus. ⁴¹ignavus. ⁴²dare. ⁴³ab. ⁴⁴inopia.
⁴⁵mihi licet (I can). ⁴⁶ingratus. ⁴⁷licet. ⁴⁸plebs. ⁴⁹valetudo. ⁵⁰esse.
⁵¹sollicitudo. ⁵²vertēre. ⁵³ducēre.

175. (3) The dative stands with other verbs also, to denote the *end* or *purpose* for which anything serves; e. g. *To give for or as a gift*, dono (*munēri*) dare; *to come to help*, auxilio (*subsilio*) venire; *to leave as a pledge*, pignōri relinquēre.

176. (4) Most verbs, which are compounded with prepositions, have the substantive or pronoun belonging to them, in the dative; e. g. *adesse*, *deesse*, *interesse*, *supplicare*, and many others. Still, there is need of particular care here, because many such verbs are differently constructed. Also, many do not admit a dative; e. g. *I*cidere in aliiquid, *to fall into or upon something*; and inter aliquos, *among certain ones*; or they admit, besides the dative, still another construction, which is often more used. Hence, in reference to these, a lexicon must be consulted, which shows the construction of such words,—and of several constructions, that must be selected, which is used by the best writers. It is also to be noticed, as stated above, § 171, that such verbs in the passive have only a third person in the neuter gender, and that an English subject-nominative becomes the dative; e. g. *He entreated the people*, supplicavit popūlo; *the people are entreated*, popūlo supplicatur; *the people have been entreated*, popūlo supplicatum est. Other examples: *I struggle with the stream*, obluctor fluminī; *you assist your brother*, fratri tuo ades; *he has been present in all dangers*, omnibus pericūlis adfuit; *Caesar made war upon Pompey*, Caesar Pompeio bellum intulit; *war was waged against the city Rome*, urbi Romae bellum illatum est; *war is made upon us*, nobis bellum infertur; and so with other compound verbs.

Examples on §§ 175, 176.

(In these, the verbs govern the dative.)

To cling¹ to our faults is a great disgrace². Justice is not always united³ with goodness⁴; as false⁵ piety does not always agree⁶ with true⁷ piety. Our faults often deceive⁸ us, under the name of virtues. Thy credulity in this has been deceived. Quintus Cicero was governor⁹ of Asia Minor, three years. Xerxes made war¹⁰ upon the Greeks with a very large¹¹ army¹². In all these battles¹³ of Julius Caesar, Dolabella was present¹⁴. Many Romans were placed¹⁵ over the sea-coast¹⁶, who made¹⁷ the sea more safe¹⁸. If friends and relations supplicate you, you will not hesitate¹⁹ to acquiesce²⁰ in their entreaties²¹. Caesar appointed²² Brutus over Gaul. Demosthenes followed²³ great orators. The equestrian order²⁴ carried²⁵ the corpse²⁶ of Augustus from Bovillae into the city. Quintus has not been present²⁷ at this feast²⁸. Milo killed²⁹ Clodius. Cicero was wickedly³⁰ killed. Relate to us those adventures³¹, in which you yourself were concerned³². Augustus gave³³ Agrippina in marriage to Germanicus, the grand-son of his sister. The same admitted³⁴ only free-born³⁵ men to his table³⁶. Phantea put³⁷ her arms³⁸ around her mother's neck³⁹, and impressed⁴⁰ kisses⁴¹ upon her lips. Caligula distributed⁴² among the boys and girls purple fillets⁴³. Themistocles was asked⁴⁴, whether⁴⁵ he would marry⁴⁶ his daughter to a virtuous poor man, or⁴⁷ to a less approved⁴⁸ rich man.

¹ adhaerere. ² dedecus. ³ conjunctus. ⁴ bonitas. ⁵ fictus. ⁶ congruere.
⁷ verus. ⁸ obrēpēre. ⁹ praeesse (to be governor). ¹⁰ inferre bellum (to make war). ¹¹ maximus. ¹² exercitus. ¹³ proelium. ¹⁴ adesse. ¹⁵ praeesse. ¹⁶ ora maritima. ¹⁷ praestare (perf.). ¹⁸ tutus. ¹⁹ dubitare. ²⁰ annuere. ²¹ prex. ²² praeficere. ²³ succedere. ²⁴ ordo equester. ²⁵ inferre. ²⁶ funus. ²⁷ interesse. ²⁸ convivium. ²⁹ mortem inferre. ³⁰ per scelus. ³¹ res. ³² interesse. ³³ collocare (to give in marriage). ³⁴ adhibere. ³⁵ ingenius. ³⁶ coena. ³⁷ implicare (to put around). ³⁸ brachium. ³⁹ cervix. ⁴⁰ infigere. ⁴¹ osculum. ⁴² distribuere. ⁴³ fascia purpurea (purple fillets). ⁴⁴ consulere. ⁴⁵ utrum. ⁴⁶ collocare. ⁴⁷ an. ⁴⁸ probatus.

177. (5) As has been before remarked, there are not only many compound, but also several simple verbs, which in the same or in a different signification, are followed by different cases. It would be tedious to exhibit all here, the most striking only will be presented.

(a) The following verbs, with a different construction, have the same signification.

abhorre alicui and ab aliquo, not to agree with something, not to fit to something, to be ill affected towards one. All the best writers use *a*, rarely the dative;

accommodare alicui and ad aliquid, to accommodate, to adapt to something. Comp. § 545;

addere alicui and ad aliquid, to add to something;

adjicere alicui and ad aliquid, to throw to something, to add to;

adulari alicui and aliquem, to flatter some one. Cicero uses only the accusative. Comp. § 545;

afferre alicui and ad aliquem, to bring to or upon some one.

Comp. § 545;

antecedere alicui and aliquem, to go before some one, to excel;

anteire alicui and aliquem, to exceed some one, to excel;

antevenire alicui and aliquem, to get the start of one, to anticipate some one;

assuefacere, assuescere alicui, aliqua re, ad or in aliquid, to accustom one's self to something. So *assuefieri* and *assuetus*. Comp. § 545. The abl. is most usual.

circumdare alicui aliquid and aliquid aliqua re, to surround something with something;

comitari alicui and aliquem, to accompany some one;

comparare alicui and cum aliqua re, to compare with something;

confidere alicui and aliqua re, to trust in something;

congruere alicui and cum aliquo, to agree with something, to fit to something;

conjungere alicui and cum aliqua re, to join with something;

desperare alicui, aliquid, de aliqua re, to despair of something;

detrahere alicui, ab and de aliqua re, to take from, to withdraw from something. Comp. § 545;

donare alicui aliquid and aliquem aliqua re, to present something to some one; to reward some one with something;

excellēre aliquibus, inter or praeter aliquos, to excel certain ones, to be distinguished above certain ones. The dative is preferable;

exnēre alicui aliquid and aliquem aliqua re, to strip, to take something from some one;

illudēre alicui and aliquid, to ridicule something; with persons, in aliquem;

incidēre alicui and in aliqua re, to cut in or into something, to make an incision. Comp. § 545;

induēre alicui aliquid and aliquem aliqua re, to put something (clothes) upon some one;

inesse alicui and in aliquo, to be in something, some one; the last in better Latin writers;

inferre alicui and in aliquid, to carry to or into something;

inhaerēre alicui and in aliqua re, to adhere to, to be fixed in, something;

interdicēre alicui aliquid and alicui aliqua re, to forbid something to some one;

jungēre alicui and cum aliquo, to join with something;

minari, minitari alicui aliquid and alicui aliqua re, to threaten some one with something; the last seldom in Cicero;

mittēre alicui and ad aliquem aliquid, to send something to some one;

obtrectare alicui and aliquem, to slander some one; but the accusative is found only after the classic period;

occumbēre morti and morte, to die; Cicero prefers the ablative; dative only in the poets;

pluēre aliquid and aliqua re, to rain something; the ablative is most in use;

praecedēre, praecellēre and praestare alicui and aliquem, to surpass some one;

scribēre alicui and ad aliquem, to write to some one; so also, rescribēre, to write back, or to answer;

supersedēre alicui and aliqua re, to omit something, to abstain, to be exempt from something. Comp. § 545.

Examples.

Servius Tullius surrounded¹ the city Rome, with a rampart², a ditch³ and a wall⁴. While⁵ strength does not fail⁶ thee, do not despair⁷ of thy life. It was the lot⁸ of the poet Archias, quickly to surpass⁹ all by the renown of his genius¹⁰. Let us not deride¹¹ the miserable¹². The Roman laws forbade¹³ fire and water to him, who had been condemned for¹⁴ treason¹⁵. Our ancestors¹⁶ excelled¹⁷ other nations in prudence. Men who have been accustomed¹⁸ to constant¹⁹ and daily²⁰ labor, can never rest²¹. Augustus prohibited Cornelius Gallus from his house and his provinces. That year, it rained blood and stones at Tarentum. As much as time²² shall detract²³ from thy achievements²⁴, so much will thy justice add to thy praise. According to the Roman custom, their goods²⁵ were wont to be prohibited to fathers, who managed²⁶ their estate²⁷ badly. This youth is not averse²⁸ to the study of law. If I had desired this, I would have adapted²⁹ my letter to your wish³⁰. The murderers³¹ did not strip³² Siccius Dentatus of his arms. You far³³ excel³⁴ others in jokes³⁴. Catiline endeavored³⁵ to burn the temples of the gods. I recently³⁷ wrote you a long letter—you have not yet³⁸ answered³⁹ me. The Tarentines presented Archias with the right of citizenship⁴⁰. Antony threatened⁴¹ the city Rome with fire and sword.

¹ circumdāre. ² agger. ³ fossa. ⁴ murus. ⁵ dum. ⁶ deficēre aliquem. ⁷ desperare. ⁸ contigēre. ⁹ excellēre. ¹⁰ ingenium. ¹¹ illudēre. ¹² miser. ¹³ interdicēre. ¹⁴ de. ¹⁵ majestas. ¹⁶ majores. ¹⁷ anteire. ¹⁸ assuēcēre. ¹⁹ assidūus. ²⁰ quotidianus. ²¹ quiescēre. ²² diuturnitas. ²³ detrahēre. ²⁴ opus. ²⁵ bonum. ²⁶ gerēre. ²⁷ res. ²⁸ abhorrēre. ²⁹ accommodare. ³⁰ voluntas. ³¹ interfector. ³² exuēre. ³³ longe. ³⁴ jocus. ³⁵ conari. ³⁶ ignes inferre. ³⁷ nuper. ³⁸ nondum (not yet). ³⁹ describēre. ⁴⁰ civitas (right of citizenship). ⁴¹ minari.

178. (b) The following verbs, with a different significance, are differently constructed.

adaequare alicui aliqua re, *to make equal with some one in some thing;*

— aliquid, aliqua re, or cum aliqua re, *to make something equal with something;*

animadvertiscere aliquem (aliquid), *to observe some one, something;*

- animadvertiscere* in aliquo, in aliqua re, *to perceive in some one, in something;*
 —— in aliquem, *to punish some one;*
- cavere* alicui, *to take care for some one, to make some one safe;*
 —— aliquem or ab aliquo, *to beware of some one, to be cautious;*
- consulere* alicui, *to take care for some one, to consult for some one;*
 —— aliquem, *to consult some one, to ask advice;*
 —— in aliquem, *to proceed, to act against some one; e. g. cruelly;*
- cupere* alicui, *to be attached to some one, to favor, to love;*
 —— aliquid, *to wish something, to covet;*
- deficere* aliquem, *to fail some one;*
 —— ab aliquo, *to revolt from, or desert one, to become faithless to one;*
- formidare* alicui, *to be in fear for one, to be anxious for one;*
 —— aliquem (aliquid), *to be terrified by some one (something), to fear something;*
- horrere*, as *formidare*;
- imperare* alicui, *to rule some one, to rule over, to command;*
 —— alicui aliquid, *to command something to some one, to impose something on some one, to demand something of some one;*
- imponere* alicui (in aliquem, in aliquo) aliquid, *to place, to impose something on some one, to lay something on one;*
 —— alicui, *to impose upon one, to deceive one. Hence, I am imposed upon, mihi imponitur. Comp. above § 171;*
- incidere* alicui, *to meet some one, to befall some one;*
 —— in aliquem (aliquid), *to come upon, to fall upon (into, among) some one (something); in and inter homines, among men;*
- incumbere* alicui, *to lean upon something, to lie upon (bodily);*
 —— in (ad) aliquid, *to lay one's self upon anything (mentally,) to bestow labor upon something, to be anxious for*

something, to take pains for, strive for, to be occupied with something;

interesse alicui, or in aliqua re, to be with or at something, to be present at something, to assist at;

— *alicujus, to concern some one.* Comp. above § 157;

— *inter aliquos, there is a difference between, to differ from,* e. g. *hoc interest inter me et te; there is this difference between me and thee, I and thou (we) differ in this.* The word *this* is expressed by *hoc, id, illud; in which, in what, by quid, and much (a great difference) by multum;* *manère alicui, to remain, to continue with one:*

— *aliquem, to expect or wait for some one, to await;*

— *in aliqua re, to remain in something, to hold fast something;*

metuēre, as formidare;

moderari alicui, to moderate, to restrain something;

— *aliquid, to rule, to govern something;*

petēre alicui aliquid, to fetch something for some one, to seek, to ask, to petition for something for some one;

— *aliquid (aliquem), to fetch something (some one), to seek, to strive for something, to go for something, to approach some one (something), to ask for something.* Hence, *to hasten to Italy, Italiam petēre; to wage war with some one, bello petēre aliquem.* In the passive, this accusative becomes nominative;

— *ab aliquo aliquid, to ask something of some one, to ask some one for something.* In the passive this accusative becomes nominative; *I am asked for money, a me pecunia petitur;*

praestare alicui and aliquem, to excel some one.

— *aliquid (aliquem), to stand for something (some one), to be good for, to be surely for;*

praestare se fortē, to prove himself brave. Comp. § 184.
prospicere alicui, to take care for one;

— *aliquem (aliquid), to foresee some one (something);*

- providēre alicui, *to make provision for, to take care of some one;*
 —— aliquid, *to foresee something, to see to, to provide;*
 quaerēre aliquem (aliquid), *to seek some one (something), to ask for one;*
 —— alicui aliquid, *to seek something for some one;*
 quaerēre ex (ab, de) aliquo aliquid (de aliqua re), *to ask some one for something. Hence; I am asked, ex (a) me quaeritur; I have been asked, ex (a) me quaesitum est.*
 Comp. § 157;
 —— de aliqua re, *to make inquiry concerning something;*
 recipēre alicui, *to assure, to promise some one;*
 —— aliquid, *to recover;*
 —— se in locum, *to go to a place;*
 referre alicui aliquid, *to bring back something to some one, to narrate something to some one;*
 —— ad aliquem aliquid, or de aliqua re, *to state, to report something to some one, to consult some one concerning something;*
 referre alicujus, *to concern some one. Comp. § 157.*
 respondēre alicui aliquid, *to answer one something, to answer something to some one;*
 —— ad aliquid, *to reply to something;*
 solvēre alicui aliquid, *to pay something to some one;*
 —— aliquem, *to free, to exempt one;*
 temperare alicui and aliquid, *to moderate, to restrain something;*
 —— aliquid, *to manage, to rule, to govern something;*
 —— aliqua re and ab aliqua re, *to restrain one's self from something, to abstain from;*
 timēre as formidare. Also, de aliqua re, *to be in fear (concerned) on account of something.*

Examples.

Cicero labored¹ with the greatest zeal for the good of the

state. That man, in whose love I especially³ trusted⁴ has shamefully⁵ deceived⁶ me. If Hannibal, after the battle at Cannae, had approached⁸ Rome, perhaps⁷ the distracted⁸ Romans would have asked⁹ peace of him. Tiberius sought the praetorship for his son, although¹⁰ he had¹¹ not yet¹² the age prescribed by law¹³. When the Athenians had been entreated to¹⁴ come to aid the city Olynthus, Demosthenes could not persuade¹⁵ them, that¹⁶ they were making war¹⁷ upon king Philip. Cotys, the king of the Thracians¹⁸, treated¹⁹ his citizens²⁰ with cruelty²¹, and spared no one. Therefore, when a friend had asked²² him, whether²³ this were not madness²⁴, he replied, Thou hast said truly²⁵, but it is a madness which is especially²⁶ beneficial²⁷ to my citizens. When Thales was asked²⁸, what was the best thing, he replied, *the world*. He, who will not restrain²⁹ his anger, will afterwards repent³⁰ of it. I will be good for that³¹ fault³², which you fear. True piety strives³³, by actions, for the renown³⁴ of an honorable³⁵ man. God has provided³⁶, from the beginning, for the good of the world. The present and future life differ³⁷ chiefly in this, that³⁷, in the latter, men will live without anxiety³⁸ and toil³⁹. Let only him, who was asked²⁸, answer the proposed⁴⁰ question⁴¹. In what does a friend differ from a flatterer⁴²? He, who zealously devotes⁴³ himself to letters⁴⁴, will always rejoice. When Themistocles was asked²⁸, whose voice he would most willingly⁴⁵ hear, he replied, *his, by whom my bravery is best proclaimed*⁴⁶. The Decemvirs imposed⁴⁷ a very heavy⁴⁸ tax⁴⁹ upon the public lands⁵⁰. Beware⁵¹ of this base⁵² man. Cranes⁵³ go⁵⁴, in autumn, to warmer⁵⁵ places⁵⁶. Cicero asked of Caesar the tribuneship⁵⁷ for Curtius. Tyrants hate⁵⁸ all those, whom they fear. The lovers of pleasure shudder⁵⁹ at every pain. Scipio never sought⁵⁴ for the consulship. Caesar demanded⁶⁰ of the states of Gaul money and horsemen. Marcellus spared⁶¹ vanquished enemies. When one fought without the order⁶² of the commander, the Romans punished⁶³ him, as an enemy. Although⁶⁴ you are wholly⁶⁵ faithless⁶⁶ to us, still we will never be faithless to you.

¹ incumbere. ² maxime. ³ confidere. ⁴ egregie. ⁵ imponere. ⁶ petere. ⁷ fortasse. ⁸ perturbatus. ⁹ petere. ¹⁰ etsi. ¹¹ esse. ¹² nondum. ¹³ legitimus (prescribed by law). ¹⁴ ut. ¹⁵ persuadere. ¹⁶ ut. ¹⁷ bellum inferre. ¹⁸ Thrax. ¹⁹ consulere. ²⁰ civis. ²¹ acriter (with cruelty). ²² quaerere. ²³ annon (whether not). ²⁴ furor. ²⁵ vera (plur.). ²⁶ maximus. ²⁷ salus (see § 173). ²⁸ quaerere. ²⁹ moderari. ³⁰ poenitente. ³¹ iste. ³² culpa. ³³ incumbere. ³⁴ gloria. ³⁵ honestus. ³⁶ providere. ³⁷ interesse. ³⁸ quod.

³⁸ cura. ³⁹ labor. ⁴⁰ positus. ⁴¹ quaestio. ⁴² assessor. ⁴³ incumbere.
⁴⁴ litterae. ⁴⁵ libenter. ⁴⁶ praedicare. ⁴⁷ imponere. ⁴⁸ pergrandis (very heavy). ⁴⁹ vectigal. ⁵⁰ ager publicus. ⁵¹ cavere. ⁵² nefarius. ⁵³ grus.
⁵⁴ petere. ⁵⁵ calidus. ⁵⁶ locus (in plur. here loca). ⁵⁷ tribunatus plebis.
⁵⁸ odisse. ⁵⁹ horrere. ⁶⁰ imperare. ⁶¹ temperare. ⁶² injussu (without the order). ⁶³ animadvertisse. ⁶⁴ etiamsi. ⁶⁵ plane. ⁶⁶ deficere.

THE ACCUSATIVE.

179. This denotes the nearest object, to which an active subject directs its action; e. g. *I teach the boy, thou writest a letter, we hunt a hare.* Here, therefore, are two substantives, denoting persons or things, connected with each other, one of them active and the other passive. Hence, when the passive substantive is made the subject of the sentence, then the verb is changed into the passive; e. g. *The boy is taught by me; a letter is written by me; a hare is hunted by us.* This is never so with the dative, which always remains dative, whether the sentence is expressed actively or passively.

As infinitives also are considered as substantives, they too can be used as objects; e. g. *I blame this tattle, (garrire); to laugh (ridere) at trifles, we consider foolish.*

In respect to this case, there is a general agreement between the English and Latin; although the Latin accusative is generally called objective in English. Neither substantives nor adjectives can govern this case. It, therefore, depends on verbs or prepositions, or is employed according to the usage of the language. Let us begin with the last.

A. SOME GENERAL RULES.

In Latin, as in English, sometimes an accusative occurs, which is not so connected with any word in the sentence, that it can be said to depend upon that word, or to be governed by it. This happens in the following instances:

180. (1) The accusative, as in English, is used in the questions: *How long (of measure), how long (of time), how high, how great, how thick, how broad, how deep, how far*

(whether it refer to interior space, or to extension), and *how old?* e. g. *One foot long, unum pedem longus; twenty-two feet high, viginti duos pedes altus; the city is two miles distant, duo millia abest; I was there only one hour, unam modo horam; the boy is two years old, duos annos natus; to deviate a finger's breadth, digitum discedere; to walk a hundred paces, centum passus ambulare.* Respecting the question of time *how long?* see above, § 76, 3.

181. (2) In some phrases, most of which contain a neuter pronoun or adjective, the Latins prefer this case, when the English must use a preposition; e. g. *I am of that age, sum id aetatis, for sum ejus aetatis, or ea aetate; for a great part, (greater, greatest or most), magnam (majorem, maximam) partem; as for the rest or other things, ceterum, cetera; in other respects, alia; in many respects, multa; other things of that kind, alia id genus; why dost thou scream? quid clamas,—and so with similar words, especially neuter pronouns, with many verbs, which are differently constructed, when nouns are joined with them; e. g. He doubts this, hoc (id) dubitat; I rejoice at both, utrumque laetor; I am angry at all, stomachorum omnia; in whatever you benefit the republic, quidquid rei publicae subvenis; I err in this very thing, hoc (id) ipsum pecco; I assent to this (to all), id (omnia) assentior; they differ in something, aliiquid differunt,—and so similar words are frequently constructed according to the Greek idiom—denoting in relation to, in respect to.*

(3) With names of cities, towns, islands and with some substantives, the accusative without any governing word is used in the question, *whither?* See § 71.

(4) In exclamations, the Latins generally use the accusative, with and without an interjection, where, in English, we use the nominative; e. g. *O sweet liberty! O dulcem libertatem! Alas! we miserable, heu! nos miseris;*

O the delusive hope of men! O fallace m̄ bovinum spēm! We often adopt a different mode of expression also; e. g. *O how delusive is hope! O how sweet is liberty!* Also in expressing wonder; e. g. *O the foolish old man! O stultum sēnēm!*

(5) Also in the question: *for what purpose (quo) this?* e. g. *for what purpose is this fortune conferred on me, if I cannot enjoy it? quo mihi fortunam? for what the history? quo historiam?*

Examples on §§ 180, 181.

Those, who are more than six and a half feet¹ tall, are called giants². Why dost thou grieve³? For what purpose are riches, which have been wickedly⁴ accumulated⁵. Caesar dug⁶ two ditches around Alesia, which were fifteen⁷ feet wide⁸. O the delicate⁹ and sweet¹⁰ poem! Alexander, when twenty-one years old¹¹, succeeded¹² his father in the government¹³. Why shall I enumerate¹⁴ the multitude¹⁵ of arts? For what purpose are the innumerable books, if we do not read them? O what an excellent custom and discipline¹⁶, which we have received¹⁷ from our ancestors¹⁸! We are already of that age¹⁹, that we cannot endure²⁰ everything. The women and small children²¹, for the most part, remain in the houses. Cicero was accustomed, in his youth²², to write speeches or other things of the kind²³, daily²⁴. Terentia, Cicero's wife, died²⁵ a hundred and three years old. The temple of the Ephesian²⁶ Diana was four hundred and fifty feet long, and two hundred and twenty feet wide. O the shameful²⁷ turpitude²⁸ of the man! O the intolerable²⁹ shamelessness³⁰, wickedness³¹ and lust³²! Why dost thou rejoice? He, who doubts this, cannot be called rash³³. O! why am I still unhappy! O! why am I afflicted! How old³⁴ does he seem to you to be? Thou hast agreed³⁵ with me thus far³⁶ in all things. In what do men differ³⁷ from other living³⁸ creatures? I rejoice³⁹ especially⁴⁰ at this⁴¹, that⁴² thou and thy friends⁴³ are in health⁴⁴.

¹ seni et semipes (six and a half feet). ² gigas. ³ dolere. ⁴ per scelus. ⁵ cogēre. ⁶ ducēre. ⁷ (see § 101). ⁸ latus. ⁹ tener. ¹⁰ mollis. ¹¹ natua. ¹² succedēre. ¹³ imperium. ¹⁴ enumerare (subj. pres.). ¹⁵ multitudō. ¹⁶ disciplina. ¹⁷ accipēre. ¹⁸ majores. ¹⁹ aetas. ²⁰ sustinēre. ²¹ filius.

²² adolescens (in his youth). ²³ genus. ²⁴ quotidie. ²⁵ decedere. ²⁶ Ephesius. ²⁷ flagitosus. ²⁸ foeditas. ²⁹ non ferendus. ³⁰ impudentia. ³¹ nequitia. ³² libido. ³³ temerarius. ³⁴ actas. ³⁵ assentiri. ³⁶ hucusque (thus far). ³⁷ differre. ³⁸ animans. ³⁹ laetor. ⁴⁰ imprimis. ⁴¹ ille. ⁴² quod. ⁴³ tuus (thy friends). ⁴⁴ valere (to be in health).

B. AFTER VERBS.

182. The accusative is used most frequently after verbs. All transitive verbs have an object, to which the action passes over or is directed. This object, to which the action of the verb is directed, is put in the accusative, depending on the verb. It is, therefore, called the object-accusative; e. g. *I throw the stone, I teach the boy, I paint a horse.* In English, the object usually stands after its verb, and after the subject. But the English sometimes places the object before the subject, and the Latin very often.

Examples.

Agamemnon scarcely¹ took² a city in ten years. In winter, snow covers³ the earth. The hope, which we cherish⁴, is often groundless⁵. Camels can endure⁶ thirst⁷ more than ten days. All men, whom we pronounce⁸ happy, are not so. The life, which I call pleasant, cannot exist without virtue. Virtue does not value⁹ highly the pleasure which she has approved¹⁰. An honorable¹¹ life, many praise. A good conscience¹² I value higher, than all riches. Our senses, neither a father, nor mother, nor teacher have corrupted¹³. These, the multitude did not seduce¹⁴ from the truth¹⁵. Temperance, Pythagoras recommended to all.

¹ vix. ² capere. ³ obtegere. ⁴ fovere. ⁵ vanus. ⁶ tolérare. ⁷ sitis. ⁸ prædicare. ⁹ pendere. ¹⁰ probare. ¹¹ honestus. ¹² conscientia. ¹³ depravare. ¹⁴ abducere. ¹⁵ veritás.

183. Most English transitive verbs are such also in Latin. Comp. however, §§ 169, 170. It would be tedious to enumerate these here, although a knowledge of them is highly important, for otherwise a mistake might easily be made in respect to the case, by a free translation. Thus it is said, e. g. *Amare aliquem*, *to love some one*; but this can also be translated, *to show love for some one*. So *diligere ali-*

quem, to esteem some one, to have esteem for some one; timere aliquem, to fear some one, to be in fear of some one; parare aliquid, to prepare something, to make preparation for something; and so with others.

184. (1) There are some transitive verbs, which govern two accusatives, one of the object, the other of the predicate, or the more immediate explanation. Some of these verbs in English are construed differently. We frequently place before the predicate the preposition *for* or the word *as*. The following examples illustrate the rule; *I pronounce him happy, he considers us happy, you show yourself firm, he chooses me as his friend.* In these examples, the words, *happy, firm, as his friend*, are the predicates of the accusatives connected with them, and hence must also be in the accusative. These examples are therefore expressed, *praedico eum beatum, nos habet beatos, te praestas constantem, eligit me a micum.*

The verbs which most usually belong here are, *facere, reddere, efficere; vocare, appellare, nominare, dicere, nuncupare; habere, ducere, putare, existimare, judicare, declarare, sentire; creare, eligere, renuntiare, designare, capere; cognoscere, agnoscere; se praestare, se praebere, se ostendere; fingere, formare; reperire, invenire; assumere, adjungere, addere; dare; accire, arcessere, and others similar.* Here belongs the phrase, *Aliquem certior facere, to make one more certain, i. e. to announce to one, to give information to one, to inform one.*

When these verbs are not used actively, but passively, the explanatory word is the predicate of the subject, and stands with it in the nominative; e. g. *This man is given to him as his keeper; hic homo ei datur custos; Brutus was united with the young men as their companion, Brutus juvenibus comes adjunctus est; I have been informed, ego certior factus sum.* Comp. above, § 129.

Examples.

(The following active sentences for practice, are to be translated passively also.)

We ourselves often make¹ our life wretched². Fortune usually makes those, whom she favors³, blind⁴. Pompey the Great made⁵ every sea safe⁶ from⁷ pirates⁸. The conquered⁹ Lacedemonians asked¹⁰ the Delphic oracle, whom they should

choose for a commander. The goddess of fortune¹¹, who had Beauty for her daughter, asked¹² her sister Minerva, How¹³ can I make my daughter happy? She replied, If you give her Virtue for a constant¹⁴ companion¹⁵. The Athenians gave to their commander Mnestheus his father and father-in-law¹⁶, as colleagues. All the former¹⁷ confederates¹⁸ of the Lacedemonians showed¹⁹ themselves idle²⁰ spectators of the defeat²¹ at Leuctra. God has made²² man the most beautiful of all animals. The Romans called the emperor Titus the love and delight²³ of the human race. Attalus, king of Pergamus, at his death, appointed²⁴ the Romans heirs²⁵ of his realm and all his wealth²⁶. Socrates usually²⁷ represented²⁸ himself ignorant²⁹ of all things, and pronounced³⁰ the sophists of his time, the most learned and wise men. O that sad³¹ and unhappy day, in which all the centuries proclaimed³² Sulla consul! O the wretched³³ Alexander of Pherae³⁴, who thought³⁵ a foreign³⁶ slave more faithful than his wife. Tullia first³⁷ saluted her husband as king.

¹ efficere. ² miser. ³ favere. ⁴ caecus. ⁵ praestare. ⁶ tutus. ⁷ a. ⁸ praedo maritimus. ⁹ victus. ¹⁰ consulere. ¹¹ Fortuna (goddess off.). ¹² quaerere. ¹³ quemadmodum. ¹⁴ perpetuus. ¹⁵ comes. ¹⁶ sacer. ¹⁷ prior. ¹⁸ socius. ¹⁹ praebere. ²⁰ otiosus. ²¹ Leuctrica calamitas (defeat at L.). ²² fingere. ²³ deliciae. ²⁴ instituere. ²⁵ heres. ²⁶ opes. ²⁷ plerumque. ²⁸ fingere. ²⁹ inscius. ³⁰ indicare. ³¹ miser. ³² renuntiare. ³³ miser. ³⁴ Pheraeus. ³⁵ putare (in subj.). ³⁶ barbārus. ³⁷ primus.

185. (2) Other transitive verbs, together with the object-accusative of a person, govern also an accusative of a thing. We frequently use two accusatives in English, but often govern one of these Latin accusatives by a preposition; e. g. *I teach you this art, te hanc artem doceo; I ask you for money, rogo te nummos.*

Here belong the verbs, celare aliquem aliquid, to conceal something from some one; rogare, interrogare, percunctari (percontari), to ask something of some one; precari, to implore, to entreat something of some one; poscere, reposcere, postulare, flagitare, to demand something of some one; docere, (edocere), to teach some one something, to instruct in something, and dedocere, to cause some one to unlearn something.

The verbs precari, poscere, reposcere, postulare and flagi-

tare, take also, instead of the accusative of the person, the preposition *a*: *T'ō entreat, to demand something of some one, ab aliquo aliquid precari, poscēre*, etc.

These verbs very seldom occur in the passive. In the few examples which are found, the personal accusative is the subject of the passive, and the accusative of the thing remains; e. g. *I have been asked my opinion, (e gō) sententiam rogatus sum; money is demanded of you, poscēris pecuniam.* Hence also, *I do what I have been asked, quod rogatus sum.* But with the above named verbs, *poscēre*, etc., the thing also can be expressed in the nominative, and the person with the preposition *a*; thus, *Pecunia a te poscitur.* Where *docere* and *celare* are used, the thing is also constructed with *de*; but the person is put in the nominative, as the subject of the passive; e. g. *Sulla de his rebus docetur, Sulla is informed of these things; tu maximis de rebus a fratre celatus es, the most important circumstances have been concealed from you by your brother.* Hence, *celandus sum, it must be concealed from me.*

Examples.

Many wish to teach that to others, which they themselves have never rightly¹ learned. Pamphylius of Sicyon² taught³ Apelles the art of painting. Whoever asks⁴ God for riches alone⁵, asks him for a perishable⁶ good. Let not friends ask⁷ shameful things of their friends. Dolabella, when in Achaia, demanded⁸ money⁹ of the magistrate of Sicyon. O the honest¹⁰ man, who conceals nothing from us! Cicero having been informed¹¹ of all, which Catiline had designed¹², disclosed¹³ his conspiracy¹⁴, and the Senate judged¹⁵ Catiline an enemy of the state. Jugurtha asked peace of Metellus by ambassadors. The consul informed³ the Senate of the cruelty and injustice¹⁶ of Verres. When Cato was asked his opinion¹⁷ concerning¹⁸ Catiline, he delivered¹⁹ an excellent speech. I will not conceal²⁰ from you the discourse²¹ of Ancipius. Why do you ask me for this²²?

¹ satis. ² Sicyonius. ³ docēre. ⁴ rogare. ⁵ solus. ⁶ fragilis. ⁷ (in the subj. with *ne*). ⁸ poscēre. ⁹ nummi. ¹⁰ simplex. ¹¹ edoctus. ¹² moliri. ¹³ aperire. ¹⁴ conjuratio. ¹⁵ judicare. ¹⁶ iniquitas. ¹⁷ sententia. ¹⁸ de. ¹⁹ habēre. ²⁰ celare. ²¹ sermo. ²² iste.

186. (3) The following verbs are considered as transitive, and govern the accusative, although from their signification most of them might seem to require a different case. They are, *equiparare, to make equal, to equal; fugēre, effugēre, subterfugēre, to avoid, to flee, to escape*

some one, something (not out of something); *juvare* and *adjuvare*, *to help, to assist*; *sequi, consēqui, persēqui, sectari*, *to follow, to pursue*; *praevenire*, *to anticipate, to surpass*; *imitari*, *to imitate*; *jubere*, *to command*; *vetare, to forbid*; *deficere, to fail*; *adire, subire and obire*, *to undertake, to encounter, to engage in*; *fallere, fugere and praeterire*, *to be unknown, to be concealed*; e. g. *I help you and others, te et alios juvo (adjuvo)*; *we have fled from our enemies, hostes nostros effugimus*; *follow that wise man, sequere illum sapientem*; *I anticipate those, illos prævenio*; *equanimity fails me, me deficit animus aequus*; *these circumstances are unknown to me, hae res me fallunt (fugiunt, praeterēunt)*.

187. An infinitive always follows *jubere* and *vetare*. Hence the accusative, which stands with these, is the accusative with the infinitive.

188. It must be further noticed, how the verbs *fallere*, *fugere* and *praeterire* are constructed, when they signify *not to know*. Then, they are used only in the third person singular and plural; e. g. *I do not know this, i. e. this deceives, flees, passes by me, hoc me fallit (fugit, praetērit)*; *I do not know these circumstances, hae res me fallunt (fugiunt, praeterēunt)*. *To know* is expressed by adding *non*; e.g. *I know this, hoc (haec) me non fallit (fallunt)*. Also, *me juvat*, can be translated, *it rejoices me, I rejoice*; *nos juvavat, we rejoice*, etc., instead of which we cannot say, *juvo, juvamus*.

Finally, *fugere, effugere, subterfugere*, when they denote the place from which some one flees, have the preposition *ex*, since with the accusative they signify only *to shun*. Hence there is a difference between, *effugi carcerem* and *ex carcere*.

Examples on §§ 186—188.

The Romans were not able after this battle to pursue the Helvetii. Great men do not escape¹ the envy of slanderous² men. Why do you grieve³, that⁴ you are not assisted⁵? Willingly encounter⁶ all hardships⁷. Men but seldom assist⁸ each other in perilous⁹ times¹⁰. The shortness of life forbids every one to form¹¹ distant¹² hopes. Many things were unknown¹³ to the ancients¹⁴, which the multitude¹⁵ now know¹⁶. I shall rejoice¹⁷ much, when I have obtained¹⁸ this. Alexander, when twenty-one years old¹⁹, succeeded his father in

the government. In the battle at Philippi, Augustus undertook²⁰ the duties²¹ of a commander. No one could equal²² Alcibiades in strength²³ of body. If food²⁴ fails²⁵ the beehive²⁶, the bees assault²⁷ those nearest. Wisdom shows the way²⁸ by which we can avoid²⁹ all errors. Wise men are accustomed to strive³⁰, not so much³¹ for the rewards of good actions³², as for good actions themselves. The palaestra helps the actor³³ much. Cleanthes commanded those who heard him, to consider³⁴ pleasure painted on a tablet³⁵. Undertake³⁶ every labor, and endure³⁷ every pain, that you may remain upright. The Roman people were commanded to observe³⁸ the last of December as a holy-day³⁹. I will follow you, whither⁴⁰ you guide me. Hannibal commanded the Spaniards⁴¹ and Africans⁴² to go first, and the Gauls⁴³ to follow them. The Roman laws forbade all foreigners⁴⁴ to ascend⁴⁵ the walls. All foreigners were forbidden by the Roman laws to ascend the walls.

¹ effugēre. ² maledicēs. ³ maerēre. ⁴ quod. ⁵ juvare. ⁶ subire. ⁷ labor. ⁸ adjuvare. ⁹ gravis. ¹⁰ tempora. ¹¹ inchoare. ¹² longus. ¹³ fallēre. ¹⁴ antiqui. ¹⁵ vulgus. ¹⁶ non fallēre. ¹⁷ juvare. ¹⁸ nancisci. ¹⁹ natus. ²⁰ obire. ²¹ munia. ²² aequiparare. ²³ vis. ²⁴ alimento. ²⁵ deficēre. ²⁶ alveus. ²⁷ petere. ²⁸ ratio. ²⁹ effugēre. ³⁰ sequi (to strive for). ³¹ tam (so much). ³² recte factum (good action). ³³ histrio. ³⁴ cogitare. ³⁵ tabula. ³⁶ subire. ³⁷ excipēre. ³⁸ habēre. ³⁹ dies festus. ⁴⁰ quo. ⁴¹ Hispanus. ⁴² Afer. ⁴³ Gallus. ⁴⁴ peregrinus. ⁴⁵ ascendēre.

189. Many impersonal verbs in Latin take their object, if it is a person, in the accusative; e. g. *poenitēre*, *to repent*; *pudēre*, *to be ashamed*, *to feel shame*; *miserēre*, *to have pity*, *to pity*; *pigēre*, *to grieve*, *to feel grieved*; *taedēre*, *to loathe*, *to be disgusted with*, *to have disgust*; *decēre*, *to become*, *to be proper*, *to be fit*; *dedecēre*, *to be unbecoming*, *to be unfit*; *oportēre*, *it must be*, *it ought*; and the compound verbs *suppoenitēre* and *suppudēre*; e. g. *It is proper for me, it becomes me, me decet; it grieves me, me piget; it shames me, I am ashamed, me pudet.*

We usually translate these impersonal verbs, as if they were personal, considering the accusative as the subject-nominative; e. g. *I repent*, *me poenitet*; *we repent*, *nōs poenitet*—and so through all the persons,—which is not the case in the Latin.

It has already been remarked above, § 155, that the *thing* which is the object of the *repentance*, *shame*, *pity*, etc. is put in the genitive.

Oportēre also, as already mentioned, is classed among the

impersonals. This also has an accusative of the person, who *ought* or *must*; e. g. *I ought*, me oportet; *we ought*, nos oportet; *the sons ought*, filios oportet. But this accusative is properly the subject of the following infinitive; for *oportet* signifies literally, *it is necessary, that*; e. g. *I must be diligent*, i. e. *it is necessary that I be diligent*, me oportet esse industrium.

Examples.

I will never¹ repent of my past² life, since I am not ashamed of it. Let us avoid³ all wickedness⁴, of which we might afterwards⁵ repent. It becomes⁶ all rational⁷ men, not to pass⁸ their lives in obscurity⁹. A law must¹⁰ be short and intelligible¹¹. There are men, who feel no¹² disgust at their disgrace¹³. An orator ought¹⁴ not to be angry¹⁵. I was ashamed of such principles¹⁶, as¹⁷ you were never ashamed of. A just man will always pity¹⁸ unfortunate citizens. The Romans repented, that they had banished¹⁹ Cicero from the city. Good men must²⁰ act²¹, rather²² than speak.

¹ nunquam. ² praeteritus. ³ effugere. ⁴ improbitas. ⁵ postea. ⁶ decet. ⁷ sanus. ⁸ transigere. ⁹ silentio. ¹⁰ oportere. ¹¹ dilucidus. ¹² non. ¹³ infamia. ¹⁴ decere. ¹⁵ irasci. ¹⁶ praeceptum. ¹⁷ qui. ¹⁸ miserere. ¹⁹ expellere. ²⁰ oportere. ²¹ agere. ²² potius.

Finally, there are several Latin verbs, which in one and the same signification, take the dative or the accusative, and again others, which with a different signification, admit different cases, also the accusative. For these see §§ 177, 178.

THE VOCATIVE.

190. The vocative is used in an address to a person, and always stands by itself, and is not dependent upon any word of the sentence, in which it is placed. It is important to distinguish between this and exclamations, the latter containing no address. For this see § 184, 4.

Not merely persons, with whom we converse, or wish to converse, are addressed by the vocative, but orators and poets sometimes attribute personality to things without life, and address them in the vocative; e. g. *Thou, O shady grove.*

Examples.

I beseech¹ you, my Atticus, undertake the whole business². Be assured³, my sweetest⁴, of my love. There is nothing, believe me, dearest⁵, more beautiful⁶, than virtue. If you love me, most noble⁷ friend, take care⁸ of my business. Place⁹ before your eyes, Mark Antony, the joy of the Roman people. I beseech¹⁰ thee, Capitoline Jupiter, the best and the greatest, and thee, queen Juno, defend¹¹ this state.

¹obsecrare. ²negotium. ³persuadere. ⁴dulcis. ⁵carus. ⁶formosus. ⁷humanus. ⁸curare. ⁹ponere. ¹⁰supplicare. ¹¹tuēri.

THE ABLATIVE.

191. The ablative depends either on an adjective, or a verb, or a preposition; or is independent of any word of the sentence. In this last connection, it is only a more immediate explanation of the predicate of a sentence, which denotes either a *place*, a *time*, or a *cause* and *occasion*, *where*, *when*, or *by which* something takes place, has taken place, or will take place.

ABLATIVE OF QUALITY.

192. The genitive of quality has already been spoken of above, §§ 140, 141.

As that is used to denote the quality or character of a person or thing, so also is the ablative.

All which belongs to this use of the ablative, has been mentioned under the genitive; those paragraphs should, therefore, be examined again.

193. The ablative of quality differs from the genitive in this, that it is for the most part used to express qualities which are *not essential* to an object, with the exception, however, of the accidental qualities of time and measure, which are denoted by the genitive; e. g. Homo summa potentia summaque fortuna; juvenis egregia facie not egregiae faciei. Comp. § 141.

Sometimes it is used to qualify another substantive, sometimes as a predicate, for the most part connected to the other substantive by *esse*; e. g. *Cato lost a son of the highest talents and the highest virtue (the most talented and the most virtuous)*, *filium summo ingenio, summa virtute;* *all who are of a sane mind (who are rational)*, *qui sana mente sunt.*

But it is to be remarked, that the phrases *to be of good courage*, and the like, are expressed almost wholly by the ablatives *bono, tranquillo, sollicito, elato animo esse*, not *boni animi esse*, because they denote only a temporary disposition, and not a quality belonging to the essential character. Exceptions to this are rare.

Examples.

Hector was a hero of distinguished¹ bravery. The emperor Titus was so amiable² and generous³, that⁴ he never denied⁵ any one anything⁶. I am very⁷ solicitous⁸ about⁹ your health¹⁰. The name of Hannibal was in great reputation¹¹ and renown with all nations. I have not only¹² the greatest hope, but also¹³ even¹⁴ greater courage¹⁵. Many parents do not know, how indulgent¹⁶ they ought¹⁷ to be towards¹⁸ their children. The Macedonians, in the earlier¹⁹ ages, were as renowned²⁰ as²¹ the Romans, in the latter²². Pompey the Great and Julius Caesar had not the same mind²³. The poet Archias was most ardently beloved²⁴ by all, who knew²⁵ him. The city Athens, is so old²⁶, that²⁷ the Athenians consider²⁸ themselves indigenous²⁹. Almost all cherish³⁰ peculiar³¹ kindness³² towards³³ you. I do not know how anxious³⁴ you are concerning³⁵ the peace of your country. Great is the authority³⁶ of a pretor, especially³⁷ of one so blameless³⁸, so dignified³⁹ and so mild⁴⁰ as thou art. I perceive⁴¹ that⁴² our Piso is more pleasing⁴³ to me than any one⁴⁴. Without this reflection⁴⁵, no one can be of a peaceful⁴⁶ mind. I know how faithful you are wont⁴⁷ to be towards⁴⁸ your friends.

¹ insignis. ² comitas. ³ liberalitas. ⁴ ut. ⁵ negare. ⁶ (comp. § 122.)
⁷ incredibilis. ⁸ sollicitudo. ⁹ de. ¹⁰ valetudo. ¹¹ fama. ¹² cum (not only).
¹³ tum (but also). ¹⁴ etiam. ¹⁵ animus. ¹⁶ indulgentia. ¹⁷ debere. ¹⁸ in.
¹⁹ prior. ²⁰ fama. ²¹ qui. ²² posterior. ²³ mens. ²⁴ amor. ²⁵ novisse
 (nosse). ²⁶ vetustas. ²⁷ ut. ²⁸ arbitrari. ²⁹ indigēna. ³⁰ esse. ³¹ singu-
 laris. ³² benevolentia. ³³ in. ³⁴ cura. ³⁵ de. ³⁶ auctoritas. ³⁷ praesertim.

²⁸ *integritas*. ²⁹ *gravitas*. ⁴⁰ *clementia*. ⁴¹ *perspicere*. ⁴² (acc. with inf.).
⁴³ *officium*. ⁴⁴ (comp. § 122). ⁴⁵ *meditatio*. ⁴⁶ *tranquillus*. ⁴⁷ (subj.). ⁴⁸ *in*.

ABLATIVE OF PRICE.

194. The definite as well as the indefinite price, *for which* anything for sale is to be bought, to be sold, *for which* something is to be hired, to be rented, to be let out, *how much* anything cost and is worth, *how high* any one estimates or values anything, *at what price* one teaches another, builds something, bathes, dwells somewhere, lives or does anything else, is in Latin for the most part put in the ablative. Hence, among others it stands with the words *dear*, *worth*, *carus*; *for sale*, *venalis*; *to value*, *to estimate*, *aestimare*, *indicare*; *to buy*, *emere*; *to sell*, *vendere*; *to be sold*, *vendi*, *venire*; *to come to*, *to cost*, *stare*, *constare*; *to be worth*, *esse*; *to hire*, *conducere*, *redimere*; *to let out*, *to hire out*, *locare*; *to offer*, *to bid for anything*, *liceri aliquid*; and many others, to which a *price* can be joined; e. g. *This book is worth three oboli*, *tribus obolis carus*; *this goblet is for sale for ten denarii*, *decem denariis venale*; *I value this book at two florins*, *aestimo (indico) duobus florenis*; *this victory cost much blood*, *multo sanguine stetit*; *this coin is worth a denarius*, *est uno denario*; *Gorgias instructed for a hundred minae*, *centenis minis docuit*.

To the above class of verbs which take the ablative, belong *mutare* and its compounds *commutare* and *permutare*. These are usually construed according to the analogy of verbs of *selling*; *I exchange something*, i. e. *I give it for something which I receive in turn*; e. g. *fidem suam et religionem pecunia mutare*, *to barter one's good faith and religion for money*; *sq studium belli gerendi agricultura*; *montes ac sylvas urbis*; *Chaoniam glandem pingui mutare aristā*. But both the poets and prose writers often change this construction, and put that which is received, in the Acc., and that which is given for it, in the Abl. with and without *cum*; e. g. *exilium patria sede mutare*, *to exchange one's country for exile*; *aliquid cum rebus, quas totus possidet orbis, mutare*, *to exchange something for the riches of the world*.

195. The definite price is always put in the ablative ; but the indefinite, e. g. *dear*, *cheap*, *much*, *how much* and the like, either in the genitive or ablative ; Cicero uses only the genitives *quanti*, *tanti*, *tantidem*, *pluris*, *minoris* and *mazimi* ; only the ablatives *magno*, *permagno*, *plurimo*, *parvo*, *paulo*, *minimo*, *tantulo*, *nihil*, *dimidio*, *nimia*, *immenso*, *vili*, *dupo* ; also *quanto*, *tanto*. There is therefore need of care. *As much as*, is expressed by *tanti*, *quanti* ; *tanto*, *quanto*.

The word *pretio* can also be joined with those ablatives ; e. g. *Magnō*, *parvo*, *minore pretio*. But *majore pretio* is never used, nor *majore* alone, but *pluris*. On the contrary *pretii* never stands among the genitives of price. Adverbs also are used to denote indefinite price ; e. g. *bene*, *melius*, *optime* ; *male*, *pejus*, *pessime*, which, however, have a different signification, according as they are connected with the word meaning *to buy* or *to sell* ; for *bene emere*, signifies *to buy cheap*, but *bene vendere*, *to sell dear*, *high* ; *male emere*, *to buy dear* ; *male vendere*, *to sell cheap*. And so in the comparative and superlative. Moreover, to the ablative of indefinite price belong *pretio*, *pecunia*, *mercedo* and *auro*, which also may be qualified by adjectives ; e. g. *Magno*, *tanto pretio*, *magna*, *grandi pecunia*, etc.

Examples on §§ 194, 195.

A painting of Apelles was bought for the temple of the Ephesian Diana, for four and twenty thousand florins. The painter Asclepiodorus sold twelve paintings of the superior¹ gods, for three hundred² minae each. In no part of Sicily, in the time of Verres, was corn worth³ so much, as at Syracuse. In time of war, everything which belongs⁴ to daily⁵ sustenance⁶, is sold dear. Gorgias first taught at Athens for money⁷ ; the instruction⁸ of every scholar cost⁹ a hundred minae, for every three¹⁰ years. My brother lives¹¹ in this house, for a hundred and twenty-two florins. The house of Clodius was for sale¹², for ten thousand florins. Every farmer will sell his grain as high¹³ as possible. Eryphyle sold the life of her husband for money. I do not know, how dear grain is. These statues¹⁴ have been sold high.¹⁵ When there is an abundance¹⁶ of grain, it is sold cheap. Thou hast sold grain as dear, as thou hast bought it. The suit¹⁷ of Miltiades was valued at fifty talents. Apollonius, a rhetorician, taught the art of oratory for pay¹⁸. Hannibal exchanged the hope of glory for defeat.

¹ supērus. ²(see § 101). ³ esse. ⁴ pertinēre. ⁵ quotidiānus. ⁶ victus. ⁷ aurum. ⁸ institutio. ⁹ constare. ¹⁰(see § 101). ¹¹ habitare. ¹² venālis. ¹³ quam plurimus (as high as possible). ¹⁴ signum. ¹⁵ (adverb). ¹⁶ ubertas. ¹⁷ lis. ¹⁸ merces.

ABLATIVE AFTER WORDS WHICH SIGNIFY *WORTHY OF*, AND *TO CONSIDER OR THINK WORTHY*.

196. In like manner, as before, *that of which* we think any one *worthy*, or *of which* any one is *worthy*, is put in the ablative; e. g. *Thou art worthy of praise*, laude dignus; *I am thought worthy of praise*, dignor laude. The Latin words which belong here are: dignus, *worthy of*; indignus, *unworthy of*, and dignari, *to be thought worthy*. Alienus also takes the ablative, when it signifies *unworthy*. The phrase *to deserve* or *merit*, in the sense of *to be worthy of*, can also be expressed by *dignum esse*, and *not to deserve*, by *indignum esse*.

The active *dignare* is mostly confined to the old poets; the passive *dignari*, as passive, is used in classic prose, but as *deponent*, it belongs to the later writers, and is there used but seldom. The genitive with *dignus* and *indignus* is poetic.

Examples.

My brother is entirely worthy¹ of thy love. Thou art unworthy of this kindness. We are not worthy of censure², but of reward. Many do not deserve their parents. I have been thought worthy of the highest³ honor. Timoleon was not thought worthy of the sight⁴ of his mother, when he had killed⁵ his brother. Only those are worthy of our friendship, whom we think⁶ worthy of our love. If we obtain⁷ renown, we are exposed⁸ to the envy of others, who deserve it less⁹. All the educated¹⁰ Romans thought⁶ the poet Archias worthy of their acquaintance¹¹ and hospitality¹². Men who distinguish¹³ themselves by some excellence¹⁴, are judged worthy of a certain respect¹⁵ and honor.

¹ (superl. of dignus). ² reprehensio. ³ superus. ⁴ adspectus. ⁵ interficere. ⁶ existimare. ⁷ nancisci. ⁸ obnoxius. ⁹ minus. ¹⁰ eruditus. ¹¹ cognitio. ¹² hospitium. ¹³ antecedere (distinguish themselves). ¹⁴ dignitas. ¹⁵ cultus.

ABLATIVES WITH WORDS OF PLENTY AND WANT.

197. Those words which signify *fulness*, *plenty*, *abundance*, *want*, *poverty*, *deprivation*, take the ablative. Many,

especially the adjectives, also take the genitive. Comp. §§152 and 160.

The words belonging here are :

(1) The adjectives *plenus*, *full*; *confertus* and *refertus*, *filled full*; *abundans*, *abundant*, *plentiful*, *rich*, *overflowing*; *onustus*, *loaded*; *inānis*, *empty*, *without*. Of these, *confertus*, *refertus*, *abundans* and *onustus*, for the most part, take the ablative; *plenus* and *inānis* the genitive.

(2) The verbs *abundare*, *redundare*, *affluere*, *circumfluere*, *diffluere*, *scatere*, *to have something in abundance*, *to abound in something*, *to be rich in something*; *carere*, *to want something*, *to be in want of*; *egere* and *indigere*, *to need*; *complere*, *explere*, *implere*, *opplere*, *supplere*, *to fill full*, *to fill up*; *farcire* and *refercire*, *to stuff*, *to cram*; *cumulare*, *to heap up*; *augere*, *to increase*; *locupletare*, *to enrich*; *satiare* and *saturare*, *to satiate*; *obruere*, *to cover over*, *to overwhelm*. Of these, *egere* and *indigere*, in Cicero, also very often govern the genitive. See § 160.

Some examples : *The life of man is filled with a variety of pleasures*, *conferta est voluptatum varietate*; *Sicily has corn in abundance* (*is rich in corn*), *abundat frumento*; *they are unhappy, who are in want of friends* (*who have no friends, whose friends fail them, who are without friends*), *qui amicis carent*; *I need consolation* (*I have need of consolation*), *egēo (indigēo) solatio*; *I filled the casks with lead*, *complevi plumbō*.

Examples.

Xerxes was rich¹ in all the rewards² and gifts³ of fortune. Socrates did not need⁴ gold, nor silver, nor other things. The most happy life is rich⁵ in all blessings⁶. I cannot forget what honor I am destitute⁷ of, what renown, what children, what gifts of fortune⁸, what a brother. Without the care⁹ of men, there is no exportation¹⁰ of those things, which some lands have in abundance, and no importation¹¹ of those,

which others need¹². Marius came into a country, which had corn and cattle¹³ in abundance. When Hannibal was on the island Crete, he filled¹⁴ old brazen¹⁵ statues with gold and silver. The city Bactra had need of a larger garrison¹⁶, but because Alexander had not abundant troops, he sent thither only a few. During¹⁷ this day no letter has come from you, which was without¹⁸ some useful and pleasant¹⁹ thing. Limbs are amputated²⁰, when they begin²¹ to be without²² blood and life.

¹ refertus. ² praemium. ³ donum. ⁴ indigēre. ⁵ abundans. ⁶ bonum. ⁷ carēre. ⁸ fortunae (gifts of fortune). ⁹ administratio. ¹⁰ exportatio. ¹¹ inventio. ¹² egēre. ¹³ pecus. ¹⁴ complēre. ¹⁵ aenēus. ¹⁶ praesidium. ¹⁷ per. ¹⁸ inānis. ¹⁹ suavis. ²⁰ amputare. ²¹ coepisse. ²² carēre.

ABLATIVE AFTER WORDS WHICH SIGNIFY TO BE FREE FROM, TO BE EXEMPT, TO BE RID OF, AND TO BE DEPRIVED OF.

198. With such words, the Latins put *that of which* any one is *free, exempt* and *deprived*, in the ablative, yet some also admit the preposition *a*.

The words which belong here are :

(1) The adjectives, *liber*, *free*, *vacuus*, *free, void of, without*, *nudus*, *bare, stripped of*, and *im munis*, *exempt from*, both with and without the preposition *a*; e. g. *Free from cares, without cares, liber (vacuus) curis and a curis; exempt from military duty, immunis militia. Orbus, bereft of,* is for the most part used with the ablative without a preposition ; e. g. *Bereft of all things, omnibus rebus.*

(2) The verbs, *liberare, to free, vacare, to be free, to be void of, to be without; laxare and relaxare, to free, to release; expedire, to disentangle, to extricate, to free from.* These have either the ablative alone, or they take the ablative with the preposition *a*; the verb *expedire* also the preposition *ex* ; e. g. *I free my country from danger, (a) periculo libero; I am free from all fear, vaco (ab) omni metu; I extricate myself from troublesome business, me (a, ex) molestis negotiis expedio.*

(3) The verbs, *levare*, *relevare*, *to relieve*; *solvēre*, *exsolvēre*, *to loose, to free*; *exonerare*, *to disburden, to free*. These only govern the ablative of *that from which one frees, or is freed*; e. g. *He believes me from anxiety and fear, me cura et timore levat* (*relēvat*).

(4) The verbs, *privare*, *spoliare*, *nudare* and *orbare*, *to deprive, to bereave*; *fraudare*, *defraudare*, *to cheat, to defraud*. These take the ablative of *that of which one deprives, or of which one is deprived*; e. g. *Sulla deprived the state of its best citizens* (*took from the state its best citizens*), *civitatem optimis civibus privavit*.

Remark. With all these verbs, the person or thing which one frees, exempts, deprives, or from whom one takes something, is in the accusative. But when these are used passively, the person or thing which is freed, etc., is put in the nominative, and that of which the person or thing is freed, deprived, etc., is put in the ablative; e. g. *I am deprived of my best friend*, (*e g o*) *optimo amico privor*; *thou hast been deprived of thy daughter and thy son*, (*t u*) *filia et filio privatus es*; *we are deprived of all things*, (*n o s*) *omnibus privamur*.

Examples.

Happy men are free¹ from every distraction² of mind. Cicero freed the fortress³ of the city from all burning⁴ and flames. The conqueror deprived⁵ the state of many brave⁶ citizens. A resolute⁷ mind is free⁸ from all anxiety⁹ and care. It is a shameful¹⁰ crime to deprive¹¹ another man of goods, honorably¹² obtained¹³. The parents, who were deprived¹⁴ of their children, were under the protection¹⁵ of the goddess Orbona. If thou doest this, thou wilt extricate¹⁶ me from all trouble¹⁷. Bessus was carried to Alexander, deprived of all the covering¹⁸ of his body. Whoever confounds¹⁹ truth²⁰ with falsehood²¹, deprives²² others of approbation, and strips them of all faith²³. Caecilius was defrauded by Varius of a large amount* of money. Thy very long letter relieved²⁴ not only me, but all my friends of our solicitude²⁵. What will the man do, who fears nothing except²⁶ a witness, when he has found²⁷, in a solitary²⁸ place, a man from whom he can take²⁹ much money? If the soul is not immortal, we are deprived³⁰ of the hope of a happy life. When the soul is freed³¹ from the incumbrance³² of the body, it will ascend³³ to heaven. Many, by their excessive³⁴ liberality, have robbed³⁵ themselves of their estate³⁶.

¹ liber. ² perturbatio. ³ arx. ⁴ incendium. ⁵ orbare. ⁶ fortis. ⁷ fortia.
⁸ vacūus. ⁹ angor. ¹⁰ flagitosus. ¹¹ privare. ¹² honeste. ¹³ paratus.
¹⁴ orbare. ¹⁵ tutela. ¹⁶ expedire. ¹⁷ molestia. ¹⁸ velamentum. ¹⁹ con-
fundere. ²⁰ vera. ²¹ falsa. ²² privare. ²³ fides. ²⁴ magnus. ²⁵ levare.
²⁶ aegritudo. ²⁷ nisi. ²⁸ nancisci (future perfect). ²⁹ desertus. ³⁰ spoliare.
³¹ privare. ³² relaxare. ³³ vineulum. ³⁴ migrare. ³⁵ nimius. ³⁶ spoliare.
³⁷ patrimonium.

ABLATIVE AFTER WORDS SIGNIFYING TO TRUST, TO REST OR LEAN UPON.

199. The following words belong here :

(1) *Fretus*, *trusting to, relying on*, and *fultus*, *resting or leaning on*; e. g. *My brother has undertaken this work, trusting to his genius, in genio fretus.*

(2) *Fidere* and *confidere*, *to trust in, to confide in*. Besides the ablative, they are also joined with the dative; e. g. *I trust in thy firmness, confido tua constantia (tuae constantiae).* See § 177. 5. But the verb *difidere*, *to distrust, to despair of*, and the participial adjective *praefidens*, *one who is too confident, trusts too much to himself*, seem to govern only the dative; e. g. *I distrust myself, mihi ipsi diffido; they err, who trust too much to themselves, sibi praefidentes.*

(3) *Niti*, *to rest upon, to rely upon*. This takes the ablative with and without *in*. But when it signifies *to strive for something*, the Latins say, *niti ad or in aliquid*; e. g. *I rely upon your equity, (in) vestra aequitate; the soul strives for immortality, ad (in) immortalitatem.*

Examples.

Many men, in their evil cause¹, trust² too much³ to fortune and wealth. The Roman consul attacked⁴ the army⁵ of the enemy⁶, before they, supported⁷ by their whole strength⁸, could be together⁹. The tribunes, Tiberius and Caius Gracchus, projected¹⁰ many innovations¹¹, trusting¹² to the favor of the people¹³. We will rely¹⁴ on hope alone¹⁵. Thou wilt be the only one¹⁶, on whom the safety of the state rests. No one can trust¹⁷ in the firmness¹⁸ of his body, nor in the con-

stancy¹⁹ of fortune. Whoever distrusts the permanence²⁰ of his possessions, is in perpetual fear. Strive²¹, in the confidence²² of virtue, for the hope of a happy life. The centurion Baculus, who despaired²³ of his own and the safety of all, seized his arms and rushed²⁴ among the enemy.

¹ causa. ² confidere. ³ nimis (too much). ⁴ adoriri. ⁵ acies. ⁶ hostis. ⁷ fultus. ⁸ vires. ⁹ constare. ¹⁰ moliri. ¹¹ nova res. ¹² fretus. ¹³ plebs. ¹⁴ niti. ¹⁵ solus. ¹⁶ unus (only one). ¹⁷ confidere. ¹⁸ firmitas. ¹⁹ stabilitas. ²⁰ perpetuitas. ²¹ niti. ²² fiducia. ²³ diffusus (who despaired). ²⁴ se immittere.

ABLATIVE AFTER WORDS OF REJOICING, GRIEVING AND BOASTING.

200. With words of *rejoicing*, *grieving* and *boasting*, the Latins, for the most part, use the ablative alone. The words which belong here are :

(1) *Laetus*, *joyful*; *laetari* and *gaudere*, *to rejoice*. These take either the ablative alone, or the ablative with *de*; e. g. *I rejoice at your arrival*, *gaudēo* (*laetor*) *tuo adventu* or *de tuo adventu*. The neuters, *hoc*, *id*, *quid* or *quod*, are put in the accusative. Comp. § 181. Here belongs also *contentus*, which takes the ablative alone. The Latins never consider *gaudere* and *laetari* as transitive verbs, and therefore they do not admit the accusative of a person, as *me*, *te*, etc. If, therefore, we wish to express by these two verbs, *it rejoices me, you, us, etc.*, we can only say, *gaudeo, gaudes, gaudemus*, etc., *laetor, laetaris, laetamur*.

201. (2) *Dolere* and *maerere* (*moerere*), *to grieve*, *to mourn*, *to lament*, *to complain*. These take the object of the grief and complaint in the ablative, with or without *de*, or in the accusative; e. g. *You grieve at my misfortune*, *doles meo casu*, or *de meo casu*, or *meum casum*. Sometimes also in English, the object is put in the nominative, but the person in the accusative; e. g. *My misfortune grieves you*. But since these two verbs are never transitive in respect to persons, such sentences must be wholly changed, and instead of *it grieves me*, we must say, *I grieve, dolēo, maerēo*.

Yet *dolere*, signifying *to cause pain, to pain*, where any parts of the body are spoken of, takes the dative: e. g. *occlus (oculi) mihi dolet (dolens)*; but not so where feelings of the mind are spoken of, as above, not *mens causa doloris dolere*.

The verb *angere*, *to fill with anguish, to afflict*, and *angi*, *to be afflicted*, etc., do not belong here, since they are constructed as transitive verbs: e. g. *grief afflits me, dolor me angit; I am afflicted with grief, dolore anger*.

The verbs *lugere, lamentari, plorare* and *deplorare, to grieve, to mourn, to weep*, take their object only in the accusative; e. g. *Who does not mourn the death of his friends? luget (lamentatur) mortem amorum?*

The verb *queri, to complain*, expresses its object either by the accusative or by *de* and the ablative; e. g. *Milo complained of the wrong done to me, injuriam meam (de) injuria mea).*

202. (3) *Gloriari* and *se jactare, to glory, to boast*, take their object or that of which one boasts, or in which he glories, in the ablative with or without *de*; and when with *jactare* the word *se* is omitted, the object is put only in the accusative; e. g. *Many glory in their exploits, boast of their exploits, (de) rebus suis gestis gloriaantur (se jactant), or res suas gestas jactant.* Moreover, *gloriari in aliqua re, to seek glory in something*. *Superbus* takes the object of which one is proud in the ablative; e. g. *proud of strength, superbus viribus.*

Examples.

We often grieve at another's¹ praise. If we are free² from pain, we rejoice on account of the freedom³ itself, and on account of the exemption⁴ from every trouble⁵. You boast of your wealth in a most excessive manner⁶. Some⁷ glory in the names of their remote ancestors. I rejoice in the happy termination⁸ of the lawsuit⁹. You rejoice¹⁰ in your distinguished¹¹ works¹². Then the ruin¹³ of the state grieved¹⁴ every one. All thy friends mourn¹⁵ over thy affliction and

misfortune¹⁶. Do not censure¹⁷ those things in¹⁸ others, of which you yourselves boast. Every animal rejoices in pleasure, as¹⁹ the highest good. I mourn²⁰ for the calamity²¹ of the state. No one will boast of an unhappy²² life. The death of Cicero grieved no one of²³ all, more than me. Nature is contented with little attention²⁴. Darius, joyful on account of the vision, which had been presented²⁵ to him in²⁶ sleep, marched²⁷ to the Euphrates. The wife of the same mourned²⁸ for the death of her husband²⁹. Him, whom the adversity³⁰ of one³¹ grieves¹⁴, the prosperity of another³¹ also grieves; as for example³², Theophrastus, who lamented³³ the death of Callisthenes, his friend³⁴, was pained³⁵ by the prosperity of Alexander. If the nerves³⁶ pain¹⁴ any one³⁷, rest³⁸ is the best thing. All vigorous³⁹ exercise is dangerous to those, whose joints⁴⁰ pain⁴¹ them.

¹ alienus. ² privare. ³ liberatio. ⁴ vacuitas. ⁵ molestia. ⁶ intolerantissime (in a most ex. manner). ⁷ quidam. ⁸ exitus. ⁹ causa. ¹⁰ laetari. ¹¹ praeclarus. ¹² opus. ¹³ casus. ¹⁴ dolere. ¹⁵ maerere. ¹⁶ casus adversus. ¹⁷ reprehendere. ¹⁸ ut. ¹⁹ in. ²⁰ lugere. ²¹ fortuna. ²² miser. ²³ ex. ²⁴ cultus. ²⁵ offerri. ²⁶ per. ²⁷ proficiisci. ²⁸ lamentari. ²⁹ maritus. ³⁰ res adversae. ³¹ aliquis. ³² ut (as for ex.). ³³ deplorare. ³⁴ sodalis. ³⁵ angui. ³⁶ nervus. ³⁷ (Comp. § 123). ³⁸ quies. ³⁹ magnus. ⁴⁰ articulus. ⁴¹ dolere.

ABLATIVE AFTER SOME DEPONENTS.

203. These deponents, which govern the ablative, are: *uti*, *to use*, *to have*, *to take advantage of*, *to associate with one*; *frui*, *to enjoy something*; *fungi*, *to manage*, *to perform*, *to execute*, *to do something*; *potiri*, *to obtain something*, *to get possession of*, *to seize*, *to usurp*, and *vesci*, *to enjoy*, *to eat something*. Also the compounds of these govern the ablative: *abuti*, *to abuse*; *perfrui*, *to enjoy fully*; *defungi*, *to complete*, *to discharge*, *to execute*, *to pass through*; and *perfungi*, *to discharge*, *to go through with*, *to finish*; e. g. *I use my liberty*, *me a libertate*; *I have a good father*, *utor bono patre*; *I associate with this man*, *utor hoc viro*; *I enjoy this pleasure*, *fruor hac voluptate*; *the Helots performed the office of slaves*, *munere servorum*; *we eat coarse bread*, *pane cibario*; *Dionysius usurped the government of Syracuse*, *impe-*

ratio Syracusarum. These verbs seldom take an accusative in classical writers.—If *uti* is translated *to have intercourse*, and an adjective qualifies the word *intercourse*, such adjective is expressed by an adverb.

The verb *potiri*, when its signification relates to *supremacy, the highest power*, usually takes the genitive; and when *empire, government, supremacy* are translated by *res*, only *rerum* in the genitive is used; e. g. *Alexander obtained the kingdom of the Persians, A. regni Persarum potitus est; these states have obtained supreme power, hae civitates rerum potitae sunt.*

Examples.

Theophrastus used every¹ moment² of life wisely. I will perform³ the same office⁴, which you performed during my affliction⁵. Caesar Octavianus at length obtained supreme power⁶ at Rome. Socrates could have escaped⁷ from his prison; but he was unwilling⁸ to make use of this means⁹, as¹⁰ one unjust. We shall surely soon obtain¹¹ our lost¹² dignity. The conveniences¹³ which we have¹⁴, the light which we enjoy, the air¹⁵ which we breathe¹⁶, the honors which we receive¹⁷, the opportunities¹⁸ we obtain¹⁹, are mostly the gifts²⁰ of God. Charles the Great conquered²¹ all Germany; but his son Louis²² lost again²³ all which he had conquered. It is a mark of a courageous soul²⁴, always to have²⁵ presence²⁶ of mind. He enjoys riches most, who least needs²⁷ his own. That is a property²⁸ of every one, which every one enjoys and uses. If we are in health²⁹, we are free³⁰ from pain, and discharge³¹ the duties³² of the body. The gods partake³³ neither of food³⁴ nor drink³⁵. We have now passed through³⁶ these dangers. Æmilius Paulus obtained all the treasures³⁷ of the Macedonians. The first men ate³⁸ acorns³⁹, strawberries⁴⁰ and other wild⁴¹ fruits⁴². In the time of Ly-sander, the Spartans had the supremacy⁴³ over the Athenians.

¹ omnis. ² momentum. ³ fungi. ⁴ officium. ⁵ luctus. ⁶ res. ⁷ effugé-re. ⁸ nolle. ⁹ ratio. ¹⁰ tamquam. ¹¹ potiri. ¹² amissus. ¹³ commoditas. ¹⁴ uti. ¹⁵ spiritus. ¹⁶ vesci. ¹⁷ fungi. ¹⁸ occasio. ¹⁹ potiri. ²⁰ munus. ²¹ potiri. ²² Ludovicus. ²³ rursus. ²⁴ Comp. § 142. ²⁵ uti. ²⁶ praesens animus (presence of mind). ²⁷ indigēre. ²⁸ proprium. ²⁹ valēre (to be in health). ³⁰ carēre. ³¹ fungi. ³² munus. ³³ vesci. ³⁴ esca. ³⁵ potio. ³⁶ defungi. ³⁷ gaza. ³⁸ vesci. ³⁹ glans. ⁴⁰ fragum. ⁴¹ rudis. ⁴² fruges. ⁴³ potiri rerum (to have the supremacy over).

ABLATIVE WITH COMPOUND VERBS.

204. Many verbs, which are compounded with prepositions, that govern the ablative, take the ablative with and without a preposition. Others, on the contrary, are found only with the ablative, and others again, usually, only with the preposition. Everything, therefore, is here to be determined by the usage of the language, and it is very important, in reference to such words, to consult the lexicon.

Some examples: ab alienare ab aliquo; se abdicare aliquare, *to lay down something*; abducere ab aliquare; abesse aliquare and (more frequently) ab aliquare; abiare ab aliquare; but abire magistratu; aberrare ab aliquare; abscedere ab aliquare and aliquare; absolvare ab aliquare and aliquare; abstinerre aliquare and ab aliquare; cedere de or e loco, and ab or de aliquare (in a metaphorical sense); declinare de and ab aliquare; deducere de and ab aliquare; desilire exorde aliquare; desidere de aliquare; detrahere de aliquare; detubare aliquare, de aliquare, and ex aliquare; depellere aliquare and de aliquare; discedere aliquare, and ab, de, ex aliquare; evadere ex aliquare; exceedere ex aliquare and aliquare; exire ex, or de aliquare; expellere aliquare and ex aliquare. And thus in similar verbs different relations are denoted; indeed, among these, there are some, which in a certain signification govern an accusative, e grēdi, exceedere, exire, *to exceed, to go beyond*.—There is here no need of any separate examples for practice.

But the following verbs, which are constructed with an ablative, should be observed.

205. (1) Afficere. This signifies properly *to affect*. That *with which* any one is affected, is put in the ablative. But in English this verb is translated in various other ways; e. g. *To fill with joy*, laetitia afficere. In most cases, we translate these by a single verb, which takes its signification from the substantive in the ablative; e. g. Laetitia afficere, *to gladden, to rejoice*; munere (muneribus) aff. *to reward*; dolore aff., *to afflict*; leto (morte) aff., *to kill*; beneficio (beneficiis) aff., *to benefit, to bestow benefits*; and thus with many other combinations.

If the verb is active, the person affected by the action is put in the accusative; e. g. *He rewarded me*, munere (mu-

neribus) me affecit; thou hast benefited me, conferred favors upon me, tu me affecisti beneficiis. In the passive, this accusative becomes the subject-nominative ; e. g. *Favors have been conferred on me, ego beneficiis affectus sum.* When it stands with a noun which denotes something unpleasant, it is often rendered by the word *suffer*, with a noun denoting something agreeable, by the word *enjoy* ; e. g. *Poena affici, to suffer punishment; voluntate affici, to enjoy (to experience) pleasure.*

Moreover, an adverb is often joined with the verbs used in English ; e. g. *To reward richly* ; in Latin this must be an adjective, agreeing with the substantive ; e. g. *Thou hast rewarded me liberally, tu me magnis (largis) muneribus affecisti; you have been honored as you deserved, eo (tanto, tali) honore affectus es, quo (quanto, quali) es dignus.*

Examples.

Hannibal, on his march¹ to Etruria, suffered from a severe² disease³ of his eyes. Bessus, the murderer⁴ of Darius, was more severely² punished by Alexander the great, than was just. It is sad, if bad men are rewarded in the same manner as the good. It is uncertain how the renowned Scipio was⁵ put to death. Often reflect⁶, how great favors I have conferred on you. I now enjoy no little pleasure. The desire for riches has caused great injuries to many. They are admired⁷, who surpass⁸ others in virtue. Despair of safety⁹ had afflicted¹⁰ the king in this desert¹¹. Nicanor had filled all with a strong desire for himself. What sorrow we shall feel, when the fortune of our country fails¹² ! Ptolemy has been but lightly¹³ wounded. Thy letter would have troubled me very much, unless¹⁴ my mind had been already hardened¹⁵ against¹⁶ new sorrow.

¹ petens (on his march). ² gravis. ³ morbus. ⁴ percussor. ⁵ (subj.). ⁶ considerare. ⁷ admiratio—afficere. ⁸ anteire. ⁹ salus. ¹⁰ aegritudo—afficere. ¹¹ solitudo. ¹² perire (future). ¹³ levis. ¹⁴ nisi. ¹⁵ obdurescere. ¹⁶ ad.

206. (2) *Vivere, to live.* This has a different construction, according to its different signification.

Vivere aliqua re, to live on something, to support life; also metaphorically ; e. g. *To live on the compassion of others, aliena misericordia;* — *in aliqua re, to spend life*

in or with something; — cum aliquo, to live with some one, to have intercourse with; — de lucro, to owe one's life to the forbearance of another.

(3) *S t a r e* has also a different construction, according to its different signification.

S t a r e aliqua re and in aliqua re, to continue in something, to abide by, to remain firm; — ab aliquo, a partibus aliquujus and cum aliquo, to be on the side of some one, to hold with some one; e. g. Thou art on my side, tu stas a me, a meis partibus, mecum. So also in metaphorical phrases; e. g. A mendacio stare, to lie, to be deceitful.

(4) *F a c ē re aliquo, de aliquo and more frequently alicui, to do something with some one; e. g. Quid facimus hoc homine, what are we to do with this man? but oftener h u i c homini.*

Examples.

I had already determined¹ to live on intimate terms² with this man. Cicero spent his life mostly³ in letters⁴. All desired that Caesar would abide by those conditions, which he had made. The ancient Germans lived not only on milk, cheese and corn, but they also ate⁵ raw⁶ flesh. Whoever is not on our side, is⁷ against⁸ us. Theophrastus spent⁹ a pretty long period of his life in the investigation¹⁰ of nature. Zeno was not of the sect of the Epicureans. Truly we owe our life to forbearance. The gods are on our side; trusting¹¹ to them, let us fight. Sextus Roscius always dwelt in the country¹², and spent his life in agriculture¹³.

¹ decernēre. ²familiariter (on intimate terms). ³plurimum. ⁴literae. ⁵vesci. ⁶crudus. ⁷stare. ⁸adversus. ⁹vivēre satis diu (to spend a pretty long period, etc.). ¹⁰perscrutatio. ¹¹fretus. ¹²rus. ¹³ager colendus.

207. Besides the adjectives and verbs already mentioned, which are constructed with an ablative, the ablative also frequently occurs in sentences, where it does not seem to depend on any word. The predicate of a sentence oftentimes contains a more particular explanation, which denotes either the *time*, the *cause*, the *occasion*, the *instrument*, or the *means*.

The English employs prepositions in such specifications; the Latin too, often uses these, but it frequently prefers the ablative without a preposition. Persons are here always an exception; for the person *acting* is designated by *a*, the one *acted upon*, by *de*, the one *participating* or *accompanying*, by *cum*, and the one *interposing* or *through whose means*, by *per*. Hence the prepositions can be omitted only with inanimate objects.

208. The ablative without a preposition expresses the following relations:

I. The *means* or *instrument* with which anything is done, or *by* which anything takes place; e. g. *We chew food with the teeth, dentibus*; *we sail through the sea with ships, navibus*; *he wasted the land with fire and sword, ferro ignique*; *two cliffs are formed by a bridge, ponte*; *the soul acts by its own energy, not by that of another, vi sua non aliena*.

Here, to the literal signification of the ablative belong *pedibus* (with the feet), *classe, classibus, navibus* (with ships), *equo* (with a horse). Instead of this literal sense of the ablative, we say, *on foot, by or in ships, on a horse*; e. g. *I travel on foot (pedibus) to Italy; I travel to Greece by ship (classe)*.

Remarks.

(1) *Per* with the accusative of the inanimate means or instrument is comparatively rare. It is used particularly to convey the idea of *under pretence of*, or when a deceptive means is employed; e. g. *per fidem, under pretence of fidelity*; *per causam belli, under pretence of war*; *per insidias interficere, by lying in wait*. But the ablative also occurs in this connection. In other instances, it may often be regarded as an adverbial phrase, expressing manner. See § 211. Rem. 1.

(2) When animate beings are the instrument or means, *per* is used. The question is then asked, *by means of whom?* e. g. *By me, per me; by Cicero, per Ciceronem*. Often also, instead of *per*, a circumlocution by means of a substantive in the ablative, is preferred, as *opera, ope, auxilio*, etc., and these substantives are often joined with the adjective pronouns *meus, tuus, etc.*, so that *opera mea, tua, vestra*, are equivalent to *per me, per te, per vos*; e. g. *I have been relieved from misery by your father, per tuum patrem or tui patris aux*

ilio. Here belongs also the expression, *by himself, itself*, (of itself, without the cooperation of another); e. g. *Virtue is praiseworthy of itself, per se*. So also when inanimate objects are personified; e. g. *By you (per te), O religion*.

(3) When the inanimate means merely takes the place of the efficient agent, it is also expressed, like the animate, by *per* and the accusative; e. g. *He transacted the business by letter, per litteras fecit*, the letter became the agent, instead of the person himself.

Examples.

The Athenians covered¹ with stones a certain Cyrsilius, who counselled² evil. The watchmen and keepers of the temple were driven back³ with clubs⁴ and stakes⁵. Bulls defend⁶ themselves with their horns, boars with their tusks⁷, lions with their bite⁸. Romulus, when he founded the city, marked out⁹ the boundaries¹⁰ with a lituus. It is the duty of the senate, to assist the state by deliberation¹¹. Many old men have pleased¹² themselves with the cultivation of land¹³. Athenagoras, who had ventured to export grain in a famine, was beaten¹⁴ with rods. Certain towers at Cumae, were not only struck by lightning, but even shaken down¹⁵. It is dishonorable to gain the good will¹⁶ of citizens by flatteries¹⁷. Jupiter often gave signs of future events¹⁸ to the Roman state, by fowls. More injury¹⁹ than advantage is brought²⁰ upon the public interests²¹ through very eloquent men. I presume²² you are afraid²³ that this discourse of yours may get abroad²⁴ through our means. This treachery²⁵ was prepared for Avitus by²⁶ Oppianicus through the Fabricii. The Gauls seized those, by whose means²⁷ they supposed the people to have been excited. Lysander so indulged himself, that by his means the Lacedemonians incurred²⁸ the very great odium of Greece. Through²⁹ me you obtained³⁰ his friendship. By you, O Eloquence and Poetry, the customs are improved³¹. Virtue always shines by itself. Many of these trees were planted³² by my hand. Varius despatched³³ Drusus by the sword, and Metellus by poison. The states were governed by laws. Tullus transacted the business by means of slaves. In nothing³⁴ did they glory more, than in having deceived³⁵ the king by a truce³⁶ and the hope of peace. Cicero was banished from his country by the party³⁷ of Clodius.

¹ cooperire. ² suadens (who counselled). ³ repellere. ⁴ clava. ⁵ fustis. ⁶ tutari. ⁷ dens. ⁸ morsus. ⁹ dirigere. ¹⁰ regio. ¹¹ consilium. ¹² oblectare. ¹³ ager. ¹⁴ caedere. ¹⁵ decutere. ¹⁶ benevolentia. ¹⁷ blanditia. ¹⁸ casus. ¹⁹ detrimentum. ²⁰ importare. ²¹ res. ²² arbitrari. ²³ vereri (to be afraid). ²⁴ emanare (to get abroad). ²⁵ insidiae. ²⁶ ab. ²⁷ opera. ²⁸ pervenire in.

²⁹ opera. ³⁰ accedēre in. ³¹ emollire. ³² serēre. ³³ tollēre. ³⁴ nulla res.
³⁵ rex deceptus (abl.). ³⁶ inducīae. ³⁷ socius.

209. (II.) The efficient *ground* or *cause* of a quality, state or action.

But here it is to be noticed, that this cause may be either *inanimate* or *animate*. From this distinction arise two constructions :

(1) When the *inanimate* efficient cause, by which a quality or state belongs to the subject, or generally by which something takes place, is expressed, the ablative without a preposition is used ; e. g. *Many distinguish themselves by learning, others by military glory, multi doctrina, alii bellica laude; he is wearied by labor, labore; this man died by poisonous plants, plantis venenatis.* Comp. the Abl. in the sense of *on account of*, § 213. 4.

Remark.

This idea of *inanimate cause* is closely related to that of *means*, inasmuch as both are considered as effecting some end. But the careful student will generally be able to distinguish between the two. The *means* or *instrument* is put in operation by some *external* agency or force, the *cause contains* the motive power, by which it operates, *within itself*; e. g. the poison is considered as the *means*, when we say : He was put to death *by poison*; but as the *cause*, when it is said : He died *of or by* poison, i. e. the poison occasioned his death. Sometimes the two ideas coincide, and the same object may be either the *means* or the *cause*, according to the point of view from which we regard it. Thus in the above example, *learning* and *military glory* may be considered both as the *means* *by* which many acquire distinction, and the *cause or ground of* that distinction, when acquired.

210. (2) When the efficient cause is an *animate* being, or at least is considered as such, *a* is used, and the question is here asked, *by whom?* e. g. *The world was made by God, a Deo; everything has been wisely arranged by nature, a natura*, because here nature is considered as a person; had it not been, the preposition would have been omitted.

The student will now notice the general distinction between *a* with the ablative, *per* with the accusative, and the ablative alone. The originating *author* of an action, from whom it is derived and proceeds,

is expressed (in the passive construction) by *a* with the Abl. ; the person employed as a means for its accomplishment, by *per* with the Acc. ; the thing, either as *means* or *cause*, by the Abl. without a preposition.

Examples on §§ 209, 210.

Many things, which have become hard¹, dissolve² by fire. Jugurtha was taken captive by Sulla. At that time, Crassus also was put to death by Surena, the general of the Parthians. It is not probable that³ Fannius did this from malice, and that Roscius was deceived by inconsiderateness⁴. Greece was distinguished⁵ by her learning, her many arts and military valor⁶. Prosperity⁷ is embellished⁸ by friends, adversity⁹ mitigated¹⁰. Wild¹¹ beasts are often moved¹² by singing. Reason, by which alone¹³ we surpass¹⁴ the beasts, is common to all men. All men are united¹⁵ to each other, by a certain natural benevolence, and by a common law. We are prohibited by the law of nature from¹⁶ injuring¹⁷ others. The earth opens¹⁸ not only by great earthquakes¹⁹, but also by great rains²⁰. By the assistance²¹ of a ring, Gyges became king of Lydia. By the care²² of his mother Cornelia, Tiberius Gracchus was instructed in Grecian literature from childhood²³. Pains are mitigated²⁴ by long continuance²⁵. Hard stones are excavated²⁶ by soft²⁷ water. Publius Clodius was murdered by Milo near Bovillae. Reason has been given to many men by nature. We are all influenced²⁸ by a desire of praise. When absent²⁹, you are praised by many, when present, by all. Marius was wearied³⁰ by hunger³¹ and floods. This people is not troubled³² by the same superstitions as other people. Plancus was very highly³³ esteemed³⁴ by Aulus Torquatus, a most venerable³⁵ man. Caesar was killed by Brutus with a weapon.

¹ durescere. ² liquescere. ³ (acc. with inf.) ⁴ imprudentia. ⁵ florere. ⁶ virtus. ⁷ res secundae. ⁸ ornare. ⁹ res adversae. ¹⁰ sublevare. ¹¹ immans. ¹² flectere. ¹³ unus. ¹⁴ praestare. ¹⁵ continere. ¹⁶ quominus. ¹⁷ violare. ¹⁸ discedere. ¹⁹ terrae motus. ²⁰ imber. ²¹ beneficium. ²² diligentia. ²³ a puer. ²⁴ mitigare. ²⁵ vetustas (long continuance). ²⁶ excavare. ²⁷ mollis. ²⁸ trahere. ²⁹ absens (when absent). ³⁰ fessus. ³¹ inedia. ³² conflictare. ³³ maxime. ³⁴ diligere. ³⁵ gravissimus.

211. (III.) The mode or manner, in which anything takes place. When this does not exist in, but is without the subject, it is considered as an instrument or means, and is translated by the ablative without a preposition ; e. g. *He con-*

quered the city with violence, vi (i. e. in a violent manner); *this happened justly* (unjustly), *jure* (injuria).

But when the mode or manner in which something takes place, exists in the subject, and denotes a frame of mind, then, if the substantive is without an adjective, the preposition *cum* is joined with it; e. g. *The people lamented with mourning and sighs, cum luctu et gemitu.* But when there is an adjective agreeing with the substantive, *cum* can be used or omitted; e. g. *I have read this with great pleasure, magna voluptate, and magna cum voluptate.* In such a *with*, there is always contained a proper sentence with *and*; e. g. *They lamented, mourned and sighed; I have read this and rejoiced much.*

Remarks.

(1) Instead of the ablative of manner, the *accusative with per* sometimes occurs. But these cases may be regarded rather as adverbial phrases, used often when no corresponding adverbs exist, and to be imitated with caution; e. g. *Everything is hostile to me by the highest injustice* (in the most unjust manner), *per summam injuriam*; *oppressively*, *per oppressionem*; *disgracefully*, *per dedecus*; *treacherously*, *per insidias*; *jestingly*, *per ludum et jocum*; *orderly*, *per ordinem*. Hence, many English adverbs are expressed in Latin by *per*; e. g. *Violently*, *per vim*; *artfully*, *per dolum*; *angrily*, *per iram*.

(2) The ablative also denotes the mode or manner in which something takes place, by specifying the *accompanying circumstances under which it takes place*. This may be done by means of a substantive joined (1) with an adjective; e. g. *with a favorable wind, secundo vento*; (2) with a pronoun or numeral; e. g. *with this purpose, hoc consilio*; *with thirty ships, triginta navibus*; (3) with a participle, or a substantive in its place; e. g. *under the conduct of a father, patre ducente or duce*. In English we use, in these cases, the prepositions *with*, *under*, *on*; *as*, *on this condition*, *ea conditione*.

(3) The student must distinguish the accompanying *circumstance*, from the accompanying *person or thing*. The accompanying *circumstance* can be expressed in the ablative without a preposition, by a substantive having an adjective agreeing with it. The accompanying *person or thing* is denoted by the ablative with *cum*. In this case, the preposition expresses the idea of accompanying or fellowship, in distinction from *without* (*sine*), and does not contain a subordinate idea, but takes the place of the conjunction *and*, or the preposition *together with*; e. g. *The physician appeared with a cup, cum poculo*; *Romulus and Remus built Rome, cum Remo*; *I have spoken with thy brother, cum fratre tuo*; *Alexander waged war with Darius, cum Dario*; *thou livest on friendly terms with all men, cum omnibus*. Yet, in the military phrase, *To march with a large army*, and the like, examples are

found, even in Cicero, and still more in Caesar and Livy, where *cum* is not expressed. Hence, *magno, ingenti, expedito exercitu iter facere, magnis copiis venire*, and even without an adjective, e. g. *Equitatu.*

Verbal nouns of the fourth declension are an exception to the foregoing rule; they may stand in the Abl. without *cum*, even when no adjective agrees with them; e. g. *fletu, in tears.* Care should be taken in the use of *cum*, since its omission will often essentially vary the idea; e. g. *Scribo dolore* is, I write from or on account of pain; *Scribo cum dolore*, I write with pain. In the former case, the pain is the reason or motive of my writing; in the latter, it is an accompanying circumstance.

Examples.

Pompey made¹ peace upon the sea², with the greatest valor and despatch. Autronius came to Cicero with many tears, humbly begging³, that he would defend him. We have used our strength with all care⁴, and⁵ yet nothing is effected by our strength. Bessus, when he had killed Darius, fled with a few. The mortal nature often seems to be at war⁶ with the immortal. Miltiades with his fleet left the island Paros. With such pride you will not be able to have a friend. The soul of man will not perish with the body, but, adorned with a new body, will continue⁷ after death. Cicero to (with) the great joy of his fellow citizens, returned to his country. The Macedonians carried on war many years with the Persians. I have deliberated⁸ with you sufficiently about this thing. The death of those whose life is praised, ought not to be passed over⁹ in silence. I have written three books in verse¹⁰ upon¹¹ my times. The blood flows on all sides¹² in rivulets¹³. The assembly¹⁴ was held with great outcries¹⁵. I have read¹⁶ the whole book with the highest interest¹⁷. A sedition of the soldiers was excited to the great calamity and almost destruction¹⁸ of the state. The inhabitants of Minturnae¹⁹ accompanied²⁰ Marius, at his departure, with vows and tears. Plancus travelled to Africa with Aulus. Cicero set out²¹ for Athens under a clear sky. An injury is done²² in two ways, either by violence, or fraud. Caesar came on foot to Marseilles²³. If I have said anything jestingly, do not²⁴ take it in earnest²⁵. The Athenian general departed from Euboea with twenty ships of war. With your good leave²⁶ and that of this truly excellent man, I may say this. Crassus returned home with a fever. Under these patrons²⁷ and leaders, with the gods assisting, with the Roman people approving²⁸, we shall surely²⁹ be free in a short time. On (with) these conditions he made peace. Everything will not perish together³⁰ with us.

What disgraceful deed³¹ did not Catiline devise³² with Autronius and Lentulus! When the Macedonians were carrying on the war with the Persians, they came unto a valley, which they filled with hideous³³ cries. He arrived at the sea with a retinue³⁴ of thirty horsemen.

¹ conficere. ² maritimus (upon the sea). ³ supplex (humbly begging).
⁴ cura. ⁵ neque tamen quidquam (and yet nothing). ⁶ pugnare (to be at war). ⁷ permanere. ⁸ agere. ⁹ praeterire. ¹⁰ (plur.). ¹¹ de. ¹² undique. ¹³ rivus. ¹⁴ concio. ¹⁵ clamor. ¹⁶ perlegere. ¹⁷ studium. ¹⁸ perniciies. ¹⁹ Minturnenses (inhabitants of Minturnae). ²⁰ prossequi. ²¹ proficisci. ²² fieri. ²³ Massilia. ²⁴ nolle. ²⁵ in serum convertere (to take in earnest). ²⁶ venia. ²⁷ auctor. ²⁸ consentire. ²⁹ profecto. ³⁰ uns. ³¹ flagitium (dis-deed). ³² concipere. ³³ horrendus. ³⁴ comitatus.

212. (IV.) The ablative stands without a preposition in answer to the question, *Whereof?*—to designate *internal* or *external* property or quality; e. g. *He is of great genius, magno ingenio.* This is called the *ablative of quality*. See § 192, where also the *genitive of quality* is referred to.

The *material of which* anything consists, sometimes stands in the ablative; e. g. *We are made up of mind and body, animo constamus et corpore*, but a preposition is more frequent. With verbs of *making* and *forming*, the material is denoted by *ex*; as, *aliquid facere, fingere ex auro, to make something out of gold.* For the Abl. with words of *plenty* and *want*, see § 197.

Remarks.

(1) If the father or mother, *of whom* a child has been born, is designated by *of*, it is generally expressed by *ex*; but with participles *ex* is usually omitted; e. g. *Cupid was the offspring of this Venus and Mercury, ex hac Venere et Mercurio; the son of Jupiter, Iove natus (ortus).*

(2) When the preposition *of* denotes the object of the action performed by the subject, *de* is used; e. g. *I have spoken with you of this thing, de hac re; we speak of God, de Deo.*

Examples.

I will speak with you, in detail¹, of all those things, of which you have deliberated² with me. I have ascertained³ many things of the condition⁴ of the state, which I did not ascertain from you. That Hercules was the offspring⁵ of Alomena and Jupiter. Castor and Pollux, born of a mortal

mother, were regarded⁵ as gods. Caesar spoke of the victories by which he had been honored.

¹ accurate (in detail). ² agere. ³ compere. ⁴ status. ⁵ nascor (to be the offspring of). ⁶ habere.

213. (V.) The ablative is joined to nouns, adjectives and verbs to express some circumstances by which they are more exactly defined, or in answer to the question, *Wherein?*

The force of this ablative is expressed in various ways in English.

(1) By *in*. The ablative here usually stands without a preposition; e. g. *To excel in the knowledge of things*, excellēre (praestare, florēre) cognitione rerum; *Jupiter was painted in a royal dress*, ornatus regali; *in my (thy —) name*, meo (tuo) nomine, meis verbis; also, *to conquer in battle*, p̄oelio. But there is a difference between this and the phrase, *to fall in battle*, in p̄aelio cadere. The last *p̄aelio* refers to *place*, therefore *in* is expressed. So also when the *place* of the battle is named; e. g. *In the battle at Marathon, the Grecians were victorious*, in Marathonia pugna. For the usage with names of places, see §§ 67—70.

But in the figurative phrases, e. g. *To be in danger, in error, in fear, in anxiety*, the preposition *in* must not be omitted; thus, in periculo, in errore, in timore, in angore esse (versari). But when an adjective agrees with the substantive, *in* may be omitted; e. g. (in) summo periculo esse. In the phrases, *In this book, letter*, and the like, the preposition *in* is used, when something is mentioned which occurs in the book or letter, but of which the *whole* book and the *whole* letter does not treat; on the contrary, *in* is omitted, when the subject of which the *whole* book and letter treats, is mentioned.

(2) *In respect to*; e. g. *He is strong in (in respect to) mind, mente (animo); lame in respect to his feet, or in his feet, pedibus.* Here belongs the ablative nomine, in such expressions as, *a certain man, Claudio by name* (i. e. in respect to name), quidam, nomine Claudio.

(3) *According to, or in accordance with*; e. g. *According to my opinion, mea sententia; according to my judgment, meo judicio; according to this custom, hoc ritu, hoc more; the first in (according to) order, ordine.*

Hence, *To judge, to weigh, to measure according to something*, metiri, ponderare aliquā re; *I judge him according to his virtue, virtute.*

Further, in phrases, as, *To live according to nature*, where *according to* is the same as *agreeable to*, in distinction from *contrary to, secundum* is used; hence, **S e c u n d u m n a t u r a m v i v ē r e**.

(4) *On account of.* Here the ablative is used without a preposition, when the cause why anything takes place, is *internal*, existing in the subject, or when the verb with which this cause is connected, denotes a state of the mind (e. g. *to rejoice, to grieve*); e. g. *On account of (from) desire, desiderio; on account of hatred, odio.* With words denoting the state of the mind, we sometimes also use the preposition *for*; e. g. *To exult for (on account of) joy, exultare laetitia; to rejoice for joy, triumphare gaudio.* But when the cause why anything takes place is *external*, not existing in the subject, the prepositions *ob, propter, de*, are generally used; e. g. *On account of theft, ob (propter) furtum.* Still, even in this last case, the Latins very frequently place the ablative alone. Thus Cicero says, *Gubernatoris ars utilitate non arte laudatur, on account of its utility, and not on account of the skill; hae caerimoniae ea conjunctione, quae est homini cum Deo, conservandae sunt, on account of that connection.*

(5) Finally, this explanatory ablative may be sometimes rendered by *from*; e. g. *From fear, metu; from love, amore; from custom, consuetudine; by under, e. g. Under the pretence of friendship, simulatione amicitiae; under the name of tithes, nomine decumae; by at or when, expressing the relation of time, e. g. We grieve at the departure of a friend, decessu; at your arrival, tuo adventu; when the sky is clear, coelo sereno; also when it does not express the relation of time, e. g. At my command, meo jussu.* See § 75.

Examples.

When thou buildest¹, do not² go³ beyond⁴ bounds⁵ in expense⁶ and magnificence. Caesar was seldom conquered in any⁷ battle. Greece was distinguished⁸ in learning, in very many arts, and in military glory⁹. Plancus, the son-in-law of Torquatus, was like¹⁰ him in every¹¹ virtue. Men are¹² often in the greatest¹³ error, and in ignorance of the most important¹³ things. What will that man do in darkness¹⁴, who fears nothing except¹⁵ a witness¹⁶ and judge? Greet¹⁷ my Tyro in our name. Men differ¹⁸ in many things from beasts. Pleasure was painted on the tablet¹⁹ in the most beautiful attire²⁰. Conon routed²¹ the Persians near Cnidus, in a great battle. Hamilcar was killed in battle, while he was fighting²² against the Vettones. Men judge²³ many things from hatred, or²⁴ love, or desire, or passion²⁵, or pain, or joy, or hope, or fear, or some²⁶ emotion²⁷ of the mind. From the number of sparrows, Calchas predicted²⁸ the years of the Trojan war. He is not a good man, who is restrained²⁹ from wickedness³⁰, by fear of punishment.

History is silent³¹ concerning many men, who were distinguished in respect to their birth³². Many men live according to the manner³³ of wild beasts. You judge³⁴ of this book only according to its rareness³⁵, not according to its true worth³⁶. In my opinion³⁷, piety is the foundation³⁸ of all the virtues. All tortures³⁹, in their external appearance⁴⁰, are perhaps greater, but in the inward⁴¹ pain⁴², far less, than envy. Both⁴³ the youth were similar to Castor and Pollux in form. Love of country, at least⁴⁴ in my opinion, is the greatest virtue. Many judges⁴⁵ of everything according to pleasure and pain. Dishonest men will estimate⁴⁶ everything according to their advantage⁴⁷. Many excel in beauty and strength of body. In the Persian army, there were three hundred and sixty-five young men, equal⁴⁸ in number to the days of a whole year. The dead⁴⁹ man, whom Gyges had found, had a gold ring on his finger⁵⁰. We do not know what⁵¹ the gods are in body, mind and life. Children⁵² do many things, not only according to the will of their father, but also voluntarily⁵³. At the request⁵⁴ of Atticus, Cornelius Nepos wrote a book concerning the life and character⁵⁵ of Cato. The body of Darius, at the command⁵⁶ of Alexander, was buried according to the custom of his country⁵⁷. Whoever sits⁵⁸ meditating⁵⁹ at a crowded⁶⁰ table, seems uncivil, on account of his forgetfulness⁶¹ of the time and place. The

Romans exulted for the joy of victory. Under the name of a fleet, money was demanded⁶² of the states⁶³. Catiline gained⁶⁴ many good men under the appearance⁶⁵ of a pretended⁶⁶ virtue. Lucullus showed⁶⁷ himself benevolent at his first coming. Comets⁶⁸ appear even when the air is calmest⁶⁹.

¹ aedicare. ² ne. ³ prodire. ⁴ extra. ⁵ modus. ⁶ sumptus. ⁷ aliquis. ⁸ florēre. ⁹ bellica virtus. ¹⁰ par. ¹¹ omnis. ¹² versari. ¹³ magna. ¹⁴ tenēbrae. ¹⁵ nisi. ¹⁶ testis. ¹⁷ salutare. ¹⁸ differre. ¹⁹ tabula. ²⁰ vestitus. ²¹ fugare. ²² pugnans (while he was fighting). ²³ judicare. ²⁴ aut. ²⁵ iracundia. ²⁶ aliquis. ²⁷ permotio. ²⁸ divinare. ²⁹ arcere. ³⁰ facinus. ³¹ tacere. ³² genus. ³³ ritus. ³⁴ judicare. ³⁵ raritas. ³⁶ pretium. ³⁷ judicium. ³⁸ fundatum. ³⁹ tormentum. ⁴⁰ species. ⁴¹ intestinus. ⁴² cruciatus. ⁴³ uterque. ⁴⁴ quidem. ⁴⁵ ponderare. ⁴⁶ metiri. ⁴⁷ commodum. ⁴⁸ par. ⁴⁹ mortuus (the dead man). ⁵⁰ digitus. ⁵¹ qualis. ⁵² liberi. ⁵³ sua sponte. ⁵⁴ rogatus. ⁵⁵ mores. ⁵⁶ jussus. ⁵⁷ patrius (of his country). ⁵⁸ assidere. ⁵⁹ meditari. ⁶⁰ frequens. ⁶¹ inscrita. ⁶² imperare (with dative). ⁶³ civitas. ⁶⁴ tenere. ⁶⁵ species. ⁶⁶ assimulatus. ⁶⁷ praestare. ⁶⁸ cometes. ⁶⁹ quietus.

II. CONSTRUCTION OF VERBS.

Verbs have not merely the power of governing in a sentence, but they are also themselves governed, since not only the subject, but also conjunctions and the modification of the idea which the sentence contains, have an influence upon them.

1. NUMBER.

214. As almost all verbs can become predicates of a subject, where this is the case, the verb, as predicate, must depend, for its number, on the subject. Hence a singular subject has its verb in the singular.

But in English, we have some plural words, which in Latin are expressed in the singular; e. g. *Uterque, both; quotusquisque, how many, how few; optimus quisque, all the truly excellent; sestertium* (declinable) with a numeral adverb, *a million*; e. g. *Vicies sestertium, two millions; mille, (a thousand) with a genitive, and others similar.* In Latin, the singular must follow all these, even in the relative sentences connected with them; *Both hastened to fight, uterque festinavit; how few are there who assert this, quotusquisque est, qui hoc dicat? It is both of us, who say this concerning ourselves, uterque nostrum est, qui hoc de se dicit, not de nobis dicimus.* For *uterque* with the genitive of a person, defining it more minutely, see § 145. Collective words, as *par, quisque, juventus*, which, in the poets and many prose writers, have a plural

verb, in Cicero, Caesar and generally in the best writers, are joined almost exclusively with a singular verb. The student must not confound the case where *pars*, *quisque*, etc. are the *actual* subject, with that, where they are merely *in apposition* with a subject, expressed or implied, e. g. *The soldiers provide, each one for himself*, *milites, sibi quisque, consulunt*. Here the subject is *milites*, and *quisque* is in apposition; hence the verb is in the plural.

A plural subject always takes the plural. Here also the English often differs from the Latin, since it has many words in the singular, which in Latin are plural; e. g. *Divitiae*, often translated *wealth*; *castra*, *a camp*; *res secundae*, *prosperity*; *litterae*, *a letter*; *nuptiae*, *marriage*; *scalae*, *a ladder*; *sarcinae* and *impedimenta*, *baggage*; *Athenae*, *Athens*; and so many others. In Latin, the plural must follow such words; e. g. *The camp is great, castra sunt magna*; *Athens delighted me much, valde me Athenae delectarunt*.

The number of the verb, when there is more than one subject, has been treated under §§ 63 and 64.

Examples.

Both¹ cannot obtain² the same. All³ the truly wise acknowledge⁴, that⁵ there is a God. 'The camp itself, which had been abandoned, was surrendered to the enemy. The camp, which before had been pitched⁶ upon a high mountain, is now⁷ brought⁸ to the plain⁹. How few¹⁰ are found among philosophers, who agree¹¹ respecting this matter¹². Both of us are united¹³ by the same studies. Both generals departed, each to his own home. By the bravery of Marcellus, Syracuse was taken, and by his compassion¹⁴ it was preserved¹⁵. Where are the two¹⁶ millions, which you possessed¹⁷ after the death of your father? Under such circumstances¹⁸, both of us can be secured¹⁹ in our resolution²⁰. The baggage of the Helvetii, collected²¹ in one place, was taken²² by the Romans. My last²³ letter seems to have been intercepted²⁴.

¹ uterque. ² adipisci. ³ sapientissimus quisque (all the truly wise). ⁴ confitēri. ⁵ (acc. with inf.) ⁶ positus. ⁷ jam. ⁸ deferre. ⁹ planum. ¹⁰ quotusquisque. ¹¹ consentire (subj.). ¹² res. ¹³ devincire. ¹⁴ misericordia. ¹⁵ conservare. ¹⁶ vices sestertium. ¹⁷ esse. ¹⁸ quae quum ita sint (under such circumstances). ¹⁹ munitus. ²⁰ consilium. ²¹ collatus. ²² capere. ²³ proximus. ²⁴ interceptus.

2. PERSONS OF THE VERB.

215. The Latins distinguish the three different persons in the verb, by their proper endings, *o*, *s*, *t*, *mus*, *tis*, *nt*, so that they can dispense with the subjects *ego*, *tu*, *is*, *nos*, *vos*, *ii*; yet these subjects must sometimes be expressed.

(1) When two persons are contrasted with each other. This contrast is often denoted by such words as *but*, *at least*, *not*, *either*, *or*, *not only*, *but also*, where in English, stress is then laid upon the pronouns in reading; e. g. *Thou art more desirous of this, than I am, tu cupidior es, quam ego sum; but let us follow nature, nos autem sequamur.*

(2) When it is necessary that a person should be made somewhat more prominent, or be more definitely distinguished, as is often the case; e. g. *I could be satisfied with the judgment of the ancients, ego poteram esse; should you not esteem him? hunc tu non diligas?*

In the above examples, the *I* and *you* are emphatic, and are accordingly expressed in Latin. Hence, the right emphasis upon the pronouns in English, shows, in most instances, whether they are to be translated or not.

Examples.

I favor D. Brutus, you Antonius. I wish¹, that² the city may be preserved³, you desire⁴ to destroy it. How⁵ many things the painters see in shade⁶, which we do not see! You do not love our Cato more⁷ than I. We, who are at home seem to you happy. I could wish⁸, that⁹ you esteemed my friends as highly¹⁰ as I esteem thine. I return¹¹ to that which I had omitted. We practised the poetic art later than the Grecians. Shall¹² I not esteem him highly? Since so many men leave their country, why¹³ do not we do the same? Even¹⁴ if others do not do this, yet you certainly will do it. I have banished¹⁵ kings, you have introduced tyrants. The judge does not always hate him, whom you wish¹⁶. If we seem to all to be foolish¹⁷, will¹⁸ you believe the same?

¹ eup̄re. ²(acc. with inf.) ³conservare. ⁴studēre. ⁵quam. ⁶umbra. ⁷plus. ⁸velim. ⁹(omitted in Lat. and the verb in the subj.). ¹⁰(see § 153). ¹¹redire. ¹²(subj. of diliḡre, shall I). ¹³quidni (why not).

¹⁴ quodsi (even if). ¹⁵ ejicere. ¹⁶ (subj.). ¹⁷ stultus. ¹⁸ (with the interrogative num).

216. The pronoun *ego* with its plural *nos* admits the verb only in the first person, and the pronoun *tu* with its plural *vos*, only in the second person; but the other pronouns, especially *qui*, *quae*, *quod*, according to the person of the words to which they refer, admit the verb in all persons. For the person of the verb, when two subjects of different person (*I*, *thou*) belong to the verb, see § 65.

The above mentioned *qui*, *quae*, *quod*, in particular, can take after it all persons. As it is a relative pronoun, referring to the preceding sentence, when it stands as the subject of a sentence, it must be in the same person as the word to which it refers. Hence the first person is used, when the relative refers to *I*, the second, when it refers to *thou*, and also the third person, when it refers to a word of the third person. And so in the plural; e. g. *This will be very pleasing to me, who love you from the heart*, mihi, qui te ex animo amo (not a mat); *this will be very pleasing to us all, who love you*, nobis omnibus, qui te amamus; *we are among those, who deny these principles*, nos sumus ii, qui negemus; *O, how unhappy I am, that I could not see you!* O me infelicem, qui non potuerim.

Examples.

I am he, who favors you most¹. Thou art not such² an one, as³ not to know⁴ what he was. Ye are such as consider⁵ life unpleasant⁶ without these studies. Thou believest, that⁷ I, who have defended him, ought⁸ to be censured. Thou hast excited⁹ suspicion against me, who am wholly¹⁰ blameless. How can we punish you, who, in our opinion, have done¹¹ no evil? I, the same who did¹¹ all those things¹² in silence, am now interrupted¹³. I am he, who sees everything, and measures¹⁴ the long year. Thy brother has obtained¹⁵ the greatest praise by us, who have always incited¹⁶ and exhorted him. I will judge of that, if I am only¹⁷ such an one, as¹⁸ can¹⁹ judge of it, or know how²⁰ to judge. What shall I say of us, who were born and educated for praise and glory? We are among those²¹, who always advised²² peace.

¹ maxime. ² is (such an one). ³ qui. ⁴ (subj.). ⁵ putare. ⁶ insuavis.
⁷ (acc. with inf.). ⁸ reprehendendum esse (ought to be censured).
⁹ commovēre. ¹⁰ prorsus. ¹¹ agēre. ¹² illae omnes res (all those things).
¹³ interpellare. ¹⁴ metiri. ¹⁵ consēqui. ¹⁶ impellēre. ¹⁷ modo. ¹⁸ qui.
¹⁹ (subj.). ²⁰ (omitted in Lat.). ²¹ ii (among those). ²² auctorem esse.

217. When English infinitives with *to*, or *in order to* depend upon another verb, and are translated by *ut* or *qui*, those persons must be used, which, when the clause is resolved, appear as subjects with *that* or *in order that*; e. g. *We do not need much to live* (that we may live), *ut vivamus*; *I entreat you to go there* (that you would go there), *ut illuc eas*; *you are worthy to be rewarded* (that you should be rewarded), *qui praemio afficiamini*.

Examples.

Temperance admonishes¹ us to² follow³ reason. We follow these precepts, in⁴ order to live without anxiety and fear. He taught⁵ all these things, to lead⁶ all rational men in the way of a happy life. All come to supper⁷ to satisfy⁸ the desires⁹ of nature. I earnestly¹⁰ entreat you to⁴ do this as¹¹ soon as possible, and to undertake the whole affair. I asked them to love¹² you, and to count¹³ you among¹⁴ their friends. You will find¹⁵ this youth worthy to¹⁶ be loved by you. Thy friendship induced¹⁷ me to¹⁸ write to you immediately, and inform¹⁹ you of everything which happened²⁰ here. The Sicilians asked us to undertake²¹ this for²² for the sake of their honor.

¹ monēre. ² ut. ³ sequi. ⁴ ut (in order to). ⁵ praecipēre. ⁶ deducēre (imperf.). ⁷ coena. ⁸ satiare. ⁹ desiderium. ¹⁰ vehementer. ¹¹ quam primum (as soon as possible). ¹² diligēre. ¹³ habēre. ¹⁴ in numero. ¹⁵ cognoscēre. ¹⁶ qui (instead of *ut*). ¹⁷ commovēre. ¹⁸ (*ut* and the imperf.). ¹⁹ certiore facēre (comp. §§ 150 and 184). ²⁰ geri. ²¹ suscipēre. ²² causa (for the sake of).

218. The Latins frequently use the second person singular and plural, and also the first and third person plural, to denote persons in general, i. e. in making general statements; e. g. *Cernas, you* (any one) *might see*; *si consideres*, *if you* (any one) *consider*; *we* (men in general) *live*, *nor do we know how long*, *vivimus nec scimus*, *quam diu dicunt*, *they* (indefinite) *say*. The English *one*, as the subject of a verb, is very often expressed by the second per-

son singular. The subjunctive is almost always used where *one* is thus expressed; e. g. *Cernas*, *one might see*. When a pronoun refers to *one* thus expressed, it is in the second person.

The second person plural is used more rarely in this connection. The first person plural is used in expressing a *wish* and *exhortation*, where the speaker wishes to include himself; e. g. *Cogitemus*, *let us think*. The third person plural is used in such indefinite phrases as, *they say*, *they relate*, *dicunt*, *narrant*.

The Latin often expresses such general statements by the third person singular of the passive, where we use the active; e. g. *They (men) live*, *vivitur*; *they dream*, *somniatur*; *they fight*, *pugnatur*, etc. The expressions, *if one*, *when one*, *in case one*, may often be denoted by the present participle; e. g. *When one is active* (i. e. to the active), *no day is long*, *agenti*; *if*, or *in case one is punishing*, *he ought not to be angry*, *punientem non decet*.

Examples.

We do not see God, and yet we know him from his works. Before one begins, there is need¹ of deliberation², and when he has deliberated³, of prompt⁴ action⁵. Then, when the battle was over⁶, one might have seen, how great daring⁷ and resolution⁸ there was in the army of Catiline. I know not why we believe dreams. Let us go to the villa of Cicero.

¹ opus esse. ² consultum. ³ consulere. ⁴ mature. ⁵ factum. ⁶ confectus. ⁷ audacia. ⁸ vis animi.

3. DIFFERENT CLASSES OF VERBS.

219. Respecting the different signification of verbs with the ending *o*, it was stated in the first Part of this book, that some of them are transitive, others intransitive or neuter, and that the former have an accusative, but the latter do not admit one.

Both classes of verbs have passive forms, but of a different kind.

(1) Transitive verbs, which take an accusative, have a *personal* passive, since the object standing in the accusative in the active sentence, whether referring to a person or thing, becomes the subject of a passive sentence; e. g.

I love you.—Active.

Thou art loved by me.—Passive.

Alexander conquered Darius.—Active.

Darius was conquered by Alexander.—Passive.

Cimon routed these forces.—Active.

These forces were routed by Cimon.—Passive.

So in Latin :

Ego amo te, or te amo.

Tu amaris a me.

Alexander Darium vicit.

Darius ab Alexandro victus est.

Cimon has copias fudit.

Hae copiae a Cimone fusae sunt.

Therefore, the accusative of the active sentence becomes, in the passive, the passive subject of the verb,—passive, because it does not act of itself, but something good or bad happens to it from another. Hence every active sentence, which contains a subject and an object in the accusative, can become a complete passive sentence.

The student should make himself familiar with the mode of changing such active sentences into passive ones. Examples for practice have been given above, § 43.

220. (2) Intransitive verbs have only an *impersonal* passive. For, as they have no accusative, which in the passive could become their subject and nominative, their passive also has no subject, either referring to a person or thing. Hence the personal form of the third person singular of such passive verbs, is used impersonally, and is considered as neuter without a subject, and cannot be considered otherwise.

Therefore the Latin verb *ire* has in the passive :

itur, it is gone;

ibatur, it was gone;

itum est, it has been gone.

In English, we more frequently render such forms, *they go, went, have gone.*

So likewise the passives of all those verbs, which do not govern an accusative, but some other case, e. g. a dative or an ablative, or are constructed with a preposition, have no definite subject. Such verbs retain also in the passive the same cases which they govern in their active form.

Thus, in the active, *He obeys me*, paret mihi;
in the passive, *It is obeyed to me*, *I am obeyed*, patetur mihi.

But since many Latin verbs, which belong here, are translated into English by transitive ones, and these English verbs govern an accusative, which in the passive becomes the subject-nominative, therefore this English nominative, in Latin, must be in that case, which the verb governs; e. g.

He envies me, invidet mihi;
I am envied, invidetur mihi;
He envied us, invidit nobis;
We were envied, in visum est nobis;
He plays ball, ludit pilam (abl.);
Ball is or was played, pilam (abl.) lusum est.

So also an auxiliary verb, *possūm*, *soleo*, *coepi*, and the like, joined with such impersonal passives, can be used only in the third person singular; e. g. *I can be envied*, mihi invideri potest. This has been more particularly treated above, § 171.

As the auxiliary verb can be joined with the infinitives of such passives only in the third person, so also with the infinitives of the proper impersonals, e. g. *pudere*, *poenitere*. *I can repent*, me poenitēre potest; *we have ceased to repent*, nos poenitēre desīt, not *possūm*, *desivimus*.

It is further to be observed, that *I began* or *have begun*, is expressed not only by *coepi*, but also by *coeptus sum*; *I ceased* or *have ceased*, not only by *desivi* (*desii*), but also by *desitus sum*. The active, *coepi* and *desivi* stand in active, and *coeptus* and *desitus sum*, in passive sentences; e. g. *The Equi at first began to be conquered*, coepti sunt vincī; *he ceased to be called Fusius*, desitus est nominari. Nevertheless, in many writers, the active forms occur in passive sentences, but not in Cicero and Caesar.

Examples on §§ 219—220.

These fields¹ are called the meadows of Quinctius. News were brought² to Rome, that³ the consul was besieged⁴. Without the help of the gods, we shall be conquered. When the chiefs⁵ were slaughtered⁶, no one of the Romans was spared; their houses were plundered⁷, and fire was set⁸ to them when empty⁹. The age of young men is not only¹⁰ not envied, but is even¹¹ favored¹². I wish, that¹³ the Samnites and Pyrrhus himself could be persuaded. I have never been able to be persuaded by money. No labor will be spared. All my friends have been convinced. Men are often ruled¹⁴ more severely¹⁵ and cruelly¹⁶, than dumb beasts. Avaricious men will be most easily persuaded by plenty¹⁷ of money. The conquered citizens were spared by Marcellus. The state of the Athenians was severely punished¹⁸. We are requested¹⁹ to undertake this business. Three men were sent to Athens, and they were commanded²⁰ to transcribe²¹ the famous²² laws of Solon. The credulous can be easily persuaded. That consul began at first to be called Furius. I am assisted²³ by all. My life is sought²⁴. Why do we give commands²⁵, that human blood should be spared? The praise and glory of men are wont to be especially²⁶ envied. After Cicero, most of the discourses of the ancient²⁷ orators ceased²⁸ to be read. We never ceased to repent of the war, which had been begun²⁹. He was severely³⁰ punished¹⁸, by whom dice³¹ was played. Since that time, I have perceived, that³ I began to be especially³² regarded³³, honored and esteemed³⁴ by you.

¹ ager. ² afferre. ³ (acc. with inf.). ⁴ obsidēre. ⁵ principes. ⁶ trucidare. ⁷ diripere. ⁸ injicere alicui. ⁹ exhaustus. ¹⁰ modo. ¹¹ etiam. ¹² favēre. ¹³ ut. ¹⁴ imperare. ¹⁵ graviter. ¹⁶ dure. ¹⁷ magnitudo. ¹⁸ animadvertere in aliquem. ¹⁹ petere. ²⁰ jubere. ²¹ describēre. ²² inclitus. ²³ adjuvare. ²⁴ petere. ²⁵ praeceptum. ²⁶ maxime. ²⁷ antiquus. ²⁸ desinēre. ²⁹ coepitus (which had been begun). ³⁰ graviter. ³¹ alea, ludere aliqua re (to play something). ³² imprimis. ³³ observare. ³⁴ diligēre.

221. Deponent verbs also, as they have an active signification and a passive form, require a peculiar construction, when in English, the verb is expressed passively. Since in Latin they have no passive, every such passive sentence must be changed into an active one; e. g. *I have been encouraged by*

my father, i. e. *my father has encouraged me*, pater me exhortatus est; *I was forgotten*, i. e. *they forgot me*, me obliscebantur (me oblii sunt).

Examples.

I cannot now¹ be overtaken² by you. These verses have been badly translated³ by you. This painting⁴ will always be admired⁵ by us. Everything has been promised⁶ to me by the physician. The Helvetii were attacked⁷ by Caesar. I have been totally⁸ forgotten by you. What is promised you by me, and will be promised, I shall certainly perform⁹. The city Rome was a second time¹⁰ threatened¹¹ by the Gauls. The credulity of foolish men is often abused¹² by bad men. He is most admired, who is not influenced¹³ by money. Land and water animals¹⁴ are eaten¹⁵ by us. Nothing great can be obtained² without great labor.

¹jam. ²conséqui. ³interpretari. ⁴tabula picta. ⁵admirari. ⁶pollicēri. ⁷adoriri. ⁸plane. ⁹praestare. ¹⁰iterum. ¹¹minari. ¹²abuti. ¹³move-re. ¹⁴bestia terrena et aquatilis (land and water animal). ¹⁵vesci.

4. TENSES OF THE VERB.

222. Time has a three-fold relation, present, past, and future. An event denoted by the verb must belong to one of these three.

Present absolute is scribo.

Past absolute is scripsi.

Future absolute is scribam.

Yet every present, past and future action or event can be again considered either as continuing (cotemporary), or accomplished, in relation to another connected with it.

The Latin language has appropriate single forms for these different relations, three for actions* continuing, and three for those accomplished.

This may be seen from the following table.

* By action is meant anything that takes place, either actively or passively.

Continuing
in the past :
scribam,
I was writing;
accomplished :
scripseram,
I had written.

Continuing
in the present :
scribo,
I am writing;
accomplished :
scripsi,
I have written.

Continuing
in the future :
scribam,
I shall be writing;
accomplished :
scripsero,
I shall have written.

REMARKS ON THE SEVERAL TENSES.

(a) *Tenses denoting the continuance of the action.*

223. An action continuing, can be either in the present, past or future. For this threefold relation, therefore, there must also be three tenses. These are :

I. *The Present.*

The present denotes an action, which is in the present time, i. e. in that time, in which any one speaks or writes, etc.; e. g. *I read* or *am reading this book*, *lego librum*. Here the action spoken of is *present* to the speaker.

224. Moreover, this tense is often used by historians in describing things already past, instead of a perfect, for the purpose of representing the ideas more vividly, especially when the actions are performed with some degree of ardor, and either take place in quick succession, or even simultaneously; e. g. *The tumult reaches (penetrat) from the camp even to the city, the affrighted Vejentes run (currunt) to arms, a part go (eunt) to the Sabines for aid, another part attack (adoruntur) the Romans with violence.* This historical present occurs also in English, in spirited narration.

The conjunction *dum*, *while*, frequently stands with the present, when the actions are past, for the purpose of a more vivid representation; e. g. *While the Alban army are crying out to the Curiatii, Horatius had already gone to the second combat.* Comp. § 294.

Yet this construction is employed, only when the principal event occurs *within the time of the other*, not when both events are wholly cotemporaneous, in which case *dum* often signifies *as long as*, and is joined with the imperfect.

225. The present is often employed in Latin, where we, in English, use the imperfect. This happens especially in dependent sentences, although the principal sentence contains

a present and speaks of something present. See more on this, § 256.

This is the case :

(1) In such phrases as, *It would be too tedious, it were too tedious; I could*, followed by *but*. Here the Latins speak definitely in the indicative present; longum, immensum, multum est; possum; e. g. *It would be tedious* (longum est) *to enumerate the battles; I could* (possum) *mention still more, but* —. Comp. also § 270.

226. (2) In statements and questions implying the *possibility, doubt* and *propriety* of an action; e. g. *Who would not love virtue?* quis virtutem non amet? *who could bear those men?* quis istos ferat? *why should I mention the multitude of arts?* quid enumerem artium multitudinem? This present subjunctive, however, frequently corresponds with the English future or present potential; e. g. *Who can or will doubt that riches consist in virtue?* quis dubitet? *where can or will you find that man who prefers the honor of his friend to his own?* ubi istum invenias? *Shall I not go?* non eam?

227. (3) In *hypothetical* sentences, i. e. in sentences where a case is supposed or admitted, we often use an imperfect. But, where the possibility of a supposition is admitted, the Latin employs the present; on the other hand, the imperfect, when what is supposed is impossible; e. g. *If you should ask me this, I could perhaps answer nothing,* si me hoc roges, nihil fortasse respondem; *if God were (esset) unrighteous, he would punish* (poena afficeret) *the innocent also.* If, therefore, the idea is, If this or that happens, then some other event might happen, a present is used; but if the idea is, If this or that *were*, or *should happen* (but which, in the opinion of the speaker, is not, and does not happen), some other event would happen, then the imperfect is used. In a clause with *than if* or *just as if* (ac si), accompanying a sentence expressed in the present, the im-

perfect, and not the present, is used ; since this clause contains only something *conceived of*, and not real and true ; e. g. *I recommend to you all his affairs, just as if they were my own, non secus, ac si mea essent, not sint.*

228. In expressing a *wish*, in cases *possible* and *doubtful*, the Latin employs the present, first, where the present only is thought of, and second, where something is wished for, which is still *possible*. But when something *impossible* or *vain* is wished for, especially in reference to what has already taken place, and, therefore, the wish can be no longer gratified, the imperfect is used ; e. g. *I wish you would*, or *I would be glad, if you would write to me, velim mihi scribas* (this is still possible) ; *I could wish you had written to me, vellem mihi scripsisses* (this is no longer possible) ; *I could wish we could say the same, vellem nobis hoc idem liceret* (he considers it impossible) ; *I could wish you had said, vellem diceretis* (they had said something different from what he wished). *I wish, I hope, that fortune has taken nothing from you*, is expressed by *velim ne quid fortuna tibi eripuerit*, when I do not yet know, whether it has happened ; but by *vellem* — *eripuisset*, when I know that it has taken something. *I hope that my father is still alive, utinam pater vivat!* when there is no news as yet of his death ; *utinam pater vivebat!* when he is really no longer alive, and the wish is expressed, that he were still alive. Hence one is represented in the times of Caesar, exclaiming among the statues of the elder Brutus, who had been long dead : *Utinam viveres! O that you were still alive!* Therefore the expression, *I wish he would*, or *I hope he will come*, must be translated, *utinam veniat*, when he is expected ; but *utinam veniret*, when the wish is *vain*, and his coming is neither expected, nor even possible. *I hope he has come!* *utinam venerit*, when it is not known, whether he has come, but he is expected ; but *utinam venisset*, when it is known, that he has not come, where his

coming may, or may not, have been expected. The wish is, therefore, *vain*. In like manner, *If you wished*, is expressed by, *si velis*, when the person perhaps wishes something, or at least, can wish something; but *si velle*s, when he does not wish anything, or cannot wish. Therefore the wish, *velim*, stands in connection with a present or perfect, but *vellem*, with an imperfect or pluperfect.

II. *Imperfect.*

229. The imperfect denotes an action or event *in time past*, *cotemporaneous with another*, and moreover *continuing at* the time of the other.

This tense does not stand in connection with the present. As it relates to the past, it is sometimes connected with the narrative historical perfect, which is its most general usage; sometimes with the pluperfect, and sometimes also with an imperfect.

But the English imperfect, except the periphrastic form, *I was*, etc., with the present participle, e. g. *I was speaking*, does not always denote that one action is cotemporaneous with another, inasmuch as we use it also in narration, as a historical tense. We say, using our imperfect, *Alexander conquered Darius*; *Romulus built Rome*. Although neither the *conquering* nor the *building* took place at once, but continued for many years; yet these events, as they are expressed in the form of narration, are not to be regarded as continuing, or as unaccomplished in the past, because nothing is mentioned, which took place during their continuance. Hence they cannot be translated into the Latin also by an imperfect, but by a perfect, *vicit*, *condidit*. When an action is to be expressed in the imperfect, it is considered as unaccomplished in the past, still continuing in it, and interrupted by another action. The period of continuance may be represented by a line —, upon which either another event falls (—+), or to which another is wholly parallel (==); e. g.

When I was sitting (imperfect) *in the garden, a stone fell* (perfect) *down.* *When I was sitting* (imperfect) *in the garden, my sister was* (imperfect) *busy.* In both sentences, the state denoted by the word *sitting*, is considered as continuing and not yet accomplished while another took place. The first would be represented by the first of the above characters (—+), and the second by the parallel lines (==).

230. The imperfect is used, therefore :

(1) In *principal* and *subordinate sentences*, which represent an action that was still *continuing*, and not yet *accomplished*, when *another* intervened or took place ; e. g. *When Alexander was passing over* (cum transiret) *to Asia, no obstacles obstructed* (obstiterunt) *his way.* *When I was reading* (cum legarem) *in this book, my brother came* (venit) *to me.* *The pirates were sailing* (navigabant) *with Bacchus to Asia, but he changed* (mutavit) *the mast and rudder into serpents.* In these three sentences, the *passing over*, the *reading* and *sailing*, are, in reference to the *obstruction*, the *coming* and the *changing*, *cotemporaneous* but *incomplete events.* In the last sentence, the *sailing* was not yet finished, but still *continued*, when the *changing* took place. It might also be expressed : *When the pirates were sailing* — *Bacchus changed* —.

In narration, the Latin often omits the conjunction, in the first clause, and places it before the principal clause which follows ; but the time is not thereby changed ; e. g. *The criminal was stretching* (porrigebat) *his neck, when the king appeared* (apparuit) —, instead of, *When the criminal was stretching his neck, the king appeared* —. *There were* (erant) *just thirty days, when I wrote this letter* —, instead of, *When there were just thirty days, I wrote* —. *Tarquin was preparing* (parabat) *to surround the city with a wall, when the Sabine king interrupted* (intervenit) *his undertaking.* Comp. § 239.

231. (2) The imperfect is further used in *principal sentences*,

cea, which are so connected with a subordinate sentence, that both events, take place entirely within the same time, consequently two past events still continuing together, and parallel in time; e. g. *While my brother was writing (scribēbat) a letter, I was sitting (sedebam) idle.* *When Caesar was (assedit) in winter quarters, reports were frequently brought (afferebantur) to him.* Nevertheless the perfect also is often used here, denoting cōtemporaneous action.

232. (3) The imperfect also stands in principal sentences, when *customs, habits, admitted opinions and principles*, belonging to a subject of past time, are specified. For then the writer does not speak of what has happened only *once*, but of that which is *often repeated*, which is *accustomed* to be done; e. g. *The ancient Germans were careful (studabant) to harden themselves from their very childhood.* *Socrates maintained (censebat, i. e. was wont to) that the soul was immortal.* *Cimon was (erat) uncommonly generous.*

Hence this tense is especially used in *delineating character*, and when, in descriptions of battles, countries and other objects, something is to be represented, as it was at the time referred to.

Such a continued and repeated action or condition, cōtemporaneous with a principal clause, is found in phrases like the following: *Could I indeed fear this (at that time)? Could I believe that I should be feared?* These are expressed by: *Ego timērem? Ego credērem?* So also: *What could I do? quid agērem? Could I refuse this? hoc ego repudiarem?* You might or could believe, *crederes; then you could perceive, cernēres, vidēres.* *Tum vero* is used with these to strengthen them. *Who would then dare to say this? quis tum hoc audēret dicere?* As these sentences contain nothing, which took place before something else, the pluperfect cannot be used.

(4) The imperfect is used in intermediate and adjunct clauses, which denote an action that was *cōtemporaneous*

with another, but cannot be considered as *completed before* the other. In English, we often use here the pluperfect; e. g. *When Hamilcar had come to Carthage, he found the state far different from what he expected, or had expected, multo aliter ac sperabat; Caligula boasted to Caesonia, waked from sleep, of what he had done, while she had been asleep, (dum meridiaret, not meridiasset) at noon-day; we would not have done this, if we had supposed, si arbitramur, not arbitrati essemus; those men would not have honored the gods, unless it had been in their hearts, nisi in eorum mentibus haeret, not haesisset.* There is, therefore, need of caution in regard to the English pluperfect. For the imperfect indicative instead of the pluperfect subjunctive, see § (270, a.)

But it is here to be remarked, on the other hand, that the Latins often use the imperfect in introductory clauses, where the pluperfect seems to be necessary, because something already accomplished is spoken of, which is prior to the action in the principal sentence; e. g. *When he had asked — he said —*, instead of which we often say, *When he asked — he said —*. This usage seems to have been adopted, when the second event follows the other immediately; because by using the pluperfect, some time is imagined between the two events. Hence in such cases, an abridged expression, by means of the participle of the *same time* as the other event or in the present, can be employed, § 453 (2). In other places, on the contrary, the same idea is expressed by the pluperfect, even when both events are simultaneous; e. g. *When Hiero had asked (asked) Simonides what God was, he demanded —, and when on the following day he again asked, he inquired —, Hiero, quum — quaesivisset, postulavit —. Quum idem quaeret —, petivit; When some one had said to Laelius — He replied —, Laelius, quum — dicaret —, inquit; when the messenger saw (had seen) the commander slain, he said —, nuntiavit —.*

quum imperatorem prostratum vidēret, dixit — ; where indeed both ideas, that he *had seen* and *was still seeing*, are contained.

Finally, in conditional sentences, a Latin would say : *Librum emissem, si haberem*, if I *neither then had* money, *nor now have*; but, *si habuisset*, if I *had no money then*, but *now have*.

III. *The Future.*

233. The future denotes an action *continuing*, and still *incomplete, in the future*; e. g. *My father will be reading the letter*, *pater leget*. In this example the action is considered as future, and also continuing in that time. But here a conjecture only is expressed without any efforts being made to accomplish the thing. Hence, this tense sometimes denotes the future merely absolutely, without any idea of the continuance of the action; e. g. *Thou wilt break the leg, franges; he will enter the office, inibit.*

234. But the future is frequently employed in Latin, where we use the present; especially in subordinate sentences, which are not dependent; in all general precepts or instructions, when, in the principal sentence, a future or an imperative, or, instead of this, a present subjunctive stands; e. g. *Whoever wishes (volet) to obtain true glory, let him perform (fungatur) the obligations of justice; perhaps still more will be written by us, if life is prolonged (suppetet); we shall obtain this, if we are cautious (cavebimus); if you wish (voletis), you will find this; I will explain this, as well as I can (potero); be courageous, if a contest is to be engaged in (subeunda erit).* And so in phrases, as, *What wilt thou answer, if I ask thee? I will call you when it is time; I will go where my fortune carries me.* Especially is the future of *velle* and *posse* often used, where the English employs the present. But if in the English present, no futurity, as in the principal sentence, is to be denoted, the future

tense is not admissible ; e. g. *If you judge me unjustly, I will condemn you*, this is expressed by, *si iniquus es in me judex*, if he has already judged (as Cic. Fam. II, 1), but *si eris*, if he is yet to judge.

So also must a present infinitive, with the verbs *to hope*, *to promise*, and others similar, be expressed by a future infinitive, when the idea of futurity is contained in it; e. g. *I hope to spend the winter there*, *spero me ibi hibernatum*; *I promised to help him*, *me eum adiuturum*, (see § 402). And so in certain English phrases : *I go (i bo) to-morrow*; *my brother comes (veniet) in the morning*.

(b) *Tenses denoting actions completed.*

235. These include all events, which are completed before, or are prior to, some other event. Here also there is a three-fold relation of time. The accomplishment, or priority of time can be regarded as present, or past, or future. Hence, there are here also three tenses, which are evidently related to each other in form. These are the following :

I. *The Perfect.*

236. The perfect properly denotes an event prior to the present time, but completed in the present; e. g. *I have written the letter*, *epistolam scripsi*. By this I wish to say, *I have now finished writing the letter*. In English, we can express such an idea only by our perfect, not by an imperfect. Therefore, where we speak in the perfect, an event that has just happened, is intended, and accordingly no account of it is given previous to that time.

But as this *now*, or the present period, is constantly, from hour to hour, and from time to time, moving further forwards, the perfect has at length received a general and more historical sense, and accordingly denotes any action considered as complete, and not as continuing. It can therefore be called the *Aorist Perfect*. The Greek here uses the Aorist, and we our imperfect. Hence in principal propositions, all completed actions are expressed by this tense. We do not here think of a continuance, or frequent repetition, or interruption,

or that another action is to follow the accomplishment of the one stated. As in English, we here make use of the imperfect, there is therefore need of care in translating ; e. g. *Caesar determined (constituit) to cross the Rhine; the enemy hastened (petierunt) to the nearest forest; we afterwards went (contulimus) home; Tarquin came (venit) to Rome; Romulus built (condidit) the city.* For its difference from the imperfect, comp. above, § 229.

237. This narrative perfect is used for the most part in principal propositions, and describes an action which occurred, either during another, which stands in the imperfect, or after another, which stands in the pluperfect ; e. g. *While the Tribunes were doing (agere) this hastily, messengers came (venirent) from Tusculum; while he was driven back by the crowd, silence was commanded (factum est); when the Decemvir had shouted (intonuisse) this, the crowd separated (dimovit) of their own accord.*

238. In clauses beginning with a conjunction, the perfect is rarely used, yet almost wholly with the particles of time, *postquam, ut, ubi, simulac,* *after that, when, as soon as*, if in the principal clause a perfect is used, and an action is described as already completed, which is followed by another ; e. g. *When Virginius nowhere saw (vidit) any aid he said —; as soon as (ubi) this was announced (nuntiatum est) at Rome, the consul immediately departed with the army; after (postquam) they heard this, Quintius said —.* Comp. § 273. For *quum* with the perfect, see both § 239 and § 292, Remark.

239. As the sentences with *quum, when, while*, are generally only dependent sentences, to which the principal sentence refers, the usual time in these is either the imperfect, denoting contemporary action, or the pluperfect, denoting prior action. But if, by the removal or inversion of the conjunction *quum*, the sentences are as it were interchanged, (see § 230), nevertheless in the preceding and apparently the

principal sentence, the imperfect or pluperfect without the conjunction, is used, and *quum* is followed by the perfect or the historical present, indicating the true principal sentence; e. g. *Valerius was already commanding (jubebat) the Lictors to withdraw, when (quum) Appius returned (recepit) to his house*, for *quum jam Valerius — jubaret, Appius — se recepit*. Comp. §§ 230 and 244. This is always the case, when with the adverb *now* (*jam*) or *scarcely* (*vix, vixdum*) or *just*, (*commodum, tantum quod*), an event is stated to define the time of the following event. In such instances the principal sentence with *quum* follows the other, and the verb is in the perfect or in the historical present.

Instead of the pluperfect, which can be used where there is such a transposition of the conjunction (see § 230), the perfect also is frequently employed to give animation to the discourse, and is followed by the spirited present for the perfect, but only with *quum*. Thus there is in Ciceron the following narration: *When he had come into the temple of Castor, and had declared to the consul that the omens were unfavorable, the crowd at once exclaim — ; therefore in Latin, Venit in templum Castoris, obnuntiavit consuli, quum subito manus illa — exclamat*, where both of the preceding single clauses make the narration more spirited.

240. When the perfect is used in adjunct and intermediate clauses, it refers to more transient actions, in which there is no lively conception of the continuance of the action at that time; e. g. *He made (faciebat) his way, wherever he went (ibat), with the sword, until he reached the gate (ad portam perrexit); you will say that Syracuse was founded by that man who took (cepit) it, but was taken by him who received (accipit) it when organized.*

241. The perfect indicative of *debere, oportere*, and the like, when followed by an infinitive present, is translated by our *ought*, and the infinitive by our infinitive perfect; e. g.

Themistocles did not suffer the injustice which he ought to have suffered, quam ferre debuit; this money ought to have been given to the Sicilians (dari oportuit). Comp. § (270, a.), where other cases are mentioned.

The perfect subjunctive must also often be used for the pluperfect subjunctive, when it does not describe an event completed before the one connected with it, but rather an event cotemporary with the other. Here indeed the imperfect also can be employed; e. g. *Was (an fuit) there any one at that time, who would have defended him?* qui eum defenderit? not defendisset; *no one was an enemy of the country, who was not my enemy,* quin mihi inimicus fuerit, not fuisset; *I have heard no one, who spoke more reproachfully,* qui criminiosus dicerebat, not dixisset.

242. Finally, the Latins frequently use, but generally only in principal clauses, the perfect subjunctive instead of the present, to denote *ability* and *permission*; e. g. *Perhaps some one might say, fortasse dixerit quispiam; in almost all things I could sooner say (dixerim), what is not, than what is; I too would rather learn (didicerim), than censure (reprehenderebim) you.* So with *ne*, when one wishes to prevent or hinder something, the perfect is used as an imperative; e. g. *Do not do this, hoc ne feceris; do not hesitate to send, ne dubitaris mittere.*

The perfect subjunctive is frequent in prohibitions of this kind, when the prohibition relates, not to continuing actions, habits or permanent states, but to single actions of instant or rapid accomplishment, or momentary states; e. g. *Do not cross the river, ne transieris; do not stir a step anywhere, nusquam te vestigio movebis.*

II. *The Pluperfect.*

243. The pluperfect denotes an action, which took place before another past action, and therefore always refers to another event also past, which follows it. It occurs:

(1) In sentences beginning with a conjunction, containing an event, which took place before another; e. g. *When Le-*

pidus had lain down, he said, Lepidus quum recubuisse set — inquit. The actions, *lain down* and *said* are both past; but the *lying down* is prior to the *saying*, which follows it.

But it has already been stated above, § 232, in explaining the use of the imperfect, that the Latins, even in such introductory sentences, sometimes use the imperfect, as well when the second event immediately follows the first, as when the first is to be considered as still continuing at that time. Hence, where there is a change to the abridged participial construction, the participle of the present can be used for the pluperfect tense. And it has also been stated above, § 238, that some particles of time, as *postquam*, *ubi*, etc., when they denote an action that occurs before another, do not take a pluperfect, but a perfect, except, when in the principal sentence, there is an imperfect or a pluperfect, or when the sentence, in which these particles are found, is a more definite explanation of another, but is not an introductory sentence. Comp. on this § 273.

244. (2) The pluperfect is used in principal clauses, where the action is wholly cotemporary and equally completed with that of the introductory clause. Both events are past, but both also are completed at the same time; e. g. *When I had read* (*legisse m* or *legēram*) *my book, my brother also had read* (*leggērat*) *his*.

The pluperfect is further used in such principal sentences, as are so connected with a sentence beginning with a conjunction, that the apparently principal sentence should properly be the introductory sentence, and the sentence beginning with a conjunction, the principal sentence; e. g. *Already had the report of the unsuccessful engagement arrived* (*perlata erat*), *when* (*quum*) *new hope appeared* (*a fulsisit*); *they had not yet heard* (*erat audiūtum*), *that you had come to Italy*, *when* (*quum*) *I sent* (*misi*) *Villius to you with this letter*. Comp. above, § 239.

245. (3) The pluperfect is used in subordinate clauses,

which give the reason of another past action, and hence begin with *nam*, *quia* and the like; e. g. *For he had been in his way, while he was basking, offecérat* apricanti. For the cause is prior to the effect. In English, we here often use the imperfect. It is so also in sentences like this: *Nothing had happened to Polycrates (acciderat), which he did not wish, except that he had thrown his ring, which he loved, into the sea, nisi quod — abjecerat.* And so also in conditional sentences; as, *If Croesus had ever been (fuisse) happy, he might have led (pertulisset) a happy life to the day of his death.*

(4) 'The pluperfect is used in relative clauses, when something is stated in them, which took place prior to what is stated in the principal clause. Sometimes, in English, an imperfect is used here; e. g. *Themistocles did the same, which Coriolanus did (fecerat, not faciebat) among us twenty years before.*

III. *The Future-perfect.*

246. The future-perfect denotes an action completed in the future; e. g. *I shall have written, scripsero.* The action is indeed in the future, but it is conceived of and represented as completed in the future. With such events there is usually connected another later future, or an imperative, or a subjunctive used imperatively, which also contains the idea of futurity. We sometimes translate the future-perfect, by our perfect indicative, sometimes by the present or the simple future; e. g. *When you have read (legeris) the book, send (mitte) it to me; when I have written the letter (scripsero), I will come (veniam) to you; the more persons we benefit or shall benefit (profuerimus), the more friends we shall have.* The one is a future *continuing*, the other *completed* and *prior* to the first. And so in laws, which command something future, where a past tense is used, it is always the future-perfect; e. g. *Whoever is sacrilegious, ought*

to be execrated, qui sacrilegus fuerit (whoever shall have been).

247. It does not follow from what is said above, that a future must always be connected with a future-perfect. For the sake of vivacity, the present may be used, or a future may be expressed in another manner; e. g. *If I shall have effected (profecero) nothing, still I am (sum) full of courage; if I shall find (invenero) no house which pleases me, I have determined (decrevi) to live with you*, i. e. *I will then live with you, as I have determined..*

248. Moreover, it does not follow, that a future of the principal sentence must have a future-perfect in the sentence connected with it by a conjunction; this latter sometimes contains a simple future, when only cotemporary and continuing actions are described in the future; e. g. *We will speak (loquemur) of these matters, when we are (erimus, not fuerimus) at leisure.* Comp. § 234. But sometimes either a future-perfect or a future is admissible and proper. Thus Cicero says (Fam. VI. 22, 6): *Si quid ad me scripseris, ita faciam, ut te velle intellectero; sin autem tu minus scripseris, ego tamen omnia, quae tibi utilia esse arbitrabor, summo studio curabo;* where for intellectero, also intelligam might have been used, and for arbitrabor, also arbitratus ero.

249. The future-perfect is usually found in introductory sentences with a conjunction, since the principal sentence denotes an action, which is assumed as following the accomplishment of the first named. So it is in the examples under § 246. But often the principal sentence also contains an action which is to be considered as completed at the same time with the other, in the future; where therefore the result is immediately connected with the action itself, and takes place during its accomplishment. Both actions therefore proceed together, and are accomplished at the same time; e. g. *When you have (shall have) finished your letter, I also*

shall have finished mine; whoever shall crush (shall have crushed—oppresserit) *Antony, will* (will have) *put an end* (confecerit) *to a most cruel war; you will confer* (will have conferred) *a very great favor* (pergratum feceris) *on me, if you will take care* (curaritis) *of that; you will very greatly increase* (auxeris) *your merit, if you will do* (feceris) *this.* These and similar forms of *gratum facere* in this tense are found very frequently in the thirteenth book of Cicero's letters. We say more frequently, *Thou wilt confer*, instead of *Thou wilt have conferred*. But the construction would be different, if the signification were, *It will be pleasing to me, erit*, not *fuerit*; e. g. *Id si correxeris, mihi valde gratum erit.* This tense therefore is proper also in phrases, such as, *He will deserve well of this place, who —, meruerit de hoc loco, qui*, followed by the future-perfect.

250. This tense sometimes occurs also in Cicero for the other future, when the action is considered as prior, rather than cotemporary with the action of the principal sentence, since the speaker does not transfer himself to the time in which he will do something, but directly to the time in which he wishes it already done. This is particularly the case with *posse, velle, licere, placere*, etc. Hence so often, *si potuero, si voluero, si placuerit, si licuerit*, for *si potero, volam, placebit, licebit*.

It is particularly to be observed, that in English, instead of this tense, i. e. our second future, we very often employ a present, or a perfect, or a first future; hence there is need of caution in translating into Latin. Thus, in the following sentences: *If you take from nature* (shall take) *the binding influence of benevolence, no house can stand; If I hear* (shall hear) *anything more certain respecting this, I will inform you; how will you be able to be a friend to any one, unless you are attracted by love; if the sick man takes* (will take) *this remedy, he will be restored to health.* In all these examples, the Latin would use the future-perfect.

Additional Remarks on the Tenses.

(251. a.) As time is only threefold, present, past and future, every state or action, which is denoted by a verb, must fall within one of these three periods. It must either be

now, present to the writer or speaker, or *before* in the past, or *after* in the future.

But a state or an action can be considered and represented, either by itself, as absolute, without any relation to another, or as relative, in relation to a second.

There are only three absolute tenses, one of the present, one of the past, and one of the future.

1. *Absolute present*, e. g. *scribo*, *I write*.
2. *Absolute past*, e. g. *scripsi*, *I wrote*.
3. *Absolute future*, e. g. *scribam*, *I shall write*.

Here, no idea of anything cotemporary or prior is introduced, since the speaker has in mind only the present, and describes what takes place *in it*, by the present, what took place *before* it, by the perfect, and what will take place *after* it, by the future.

The necessity of expressing what is prior and cotemporary has occasioned the use of the relative tenses. But in this case, there must be two sentences referring to each other, a principal and a subordinate sentence, both either cotemporary, or so related that the subordinate sentence is *before* the other in time. Since in the space of the present, there can be no past, there should be five relative tense-forms, two for the past, one for the present, and two for the future. But only the past has its two relative forms, the present none, and the future but one.

Further remarks :

I. *The Present.*

(251. b.) This is only a small period of time; for what I *say* or *do* in this present, is already past in the next moment, therefore *said*, *done*; then we say, *I have said*, *I have done*. Hence, in the period of the present, there can be only the cotemporary existence of two or more actions, but no priority of one to another; for what is prior to another is past. There is here, however, no separate relative form for cotem-

porary existence, but this is expressed by the absolute present; a past event, related to the present, is expressed by the perfect, that is, by the form of the absolute past.

Absolute Present.

Present.

Homo *videt*, *audit*, *sentit*, *cogitat*. Quid *audio*? *Tuo facto delector*. Hoc *moleste fero*. *Irasco*. *Iratus sum*.

Relative Present.

Here are only two cases:

1. *Cotemporary existence* with another present action; thus ——.

Present—Present.

Quum *epistolam ad fratrem scribo*, me *eius desiderium tenet*. *Agricola*, quum *arat et serit*, *sperat*. Hoc *quum dicit*, non *attendit*.

2. *Priority* in reference to the present; thus —— ——.

Perfect—Present.

Quum *vénit calamitas*, tum *detrimentum accipitur*. *Senes*, quum *cenaverunt*, *meridian*ant.

II. *The Past.*

(251. c.) This embraces the entire great period, preceding the time present to the speaker. Everything which takes place in this period, whether it occurred a *long* or a *short* time since, is expressed by the perfect, when there is no reference to another event.

Absolute Past.

Perfect.

Deus *aedificavit mundum*. Romulus *condidit* Romam. Hodie *epistolam scripsi ad meum fratrem*.

In these three examples, the *exact* time in the past, when

the several events occurred, is very different; the first is in the most *remote* past, the last in the *nearest*, the second is between the other two. But this remoteness or nearness makes no difference whatever in the tense of those three sentences.

The perfect is also very frequently used, where I might consider and state the proposition in relation to another event, either *cotemporary* or *prior*, but do not do so, and therefore speak without any reference to an event happening after or at the same time with it, and have in mind nothing except the time of the past. Hence the perfect occurs so often merely as an *aorist*, i. e. without reference to anything else mentioned before or after. Thus, Livy, II. 1, says, *Nam priores (reges) ita regnabant, ut numerentur*, where he could have also said in reference to the newly chosen consuls, of whom he began to speak, *regnabant*, inasmuch as it expresses what was prior to something else.

(251. d.) The imperfect is used in preference to the perfect, only when an action, also without any reference to another, is to be considered as *repeated*, or as a *custom* and *habit*. By this use of the imperfect, the action, viewed as continuing in a former time, appears more vivid; yet instead of this, where there is no reference to the repetition, the event may be considered only as past, and may be expressed by the perfect; e. g. *Germani veteres venatui studebant* (*studiebunt*). Hence a continued belief, a fixed opinion, or thought, often repeated by a person, is generally expressed by *credebat*, *censebat*, *cogitabat*, etc.

(251. e.) But as the period of time is so great, that several events can have taken place *simultaneously* and *consecutively*, and as these can be stated with relation to each other, two actions are here sometimes cotemporary, sometimes the one is prior to the other. The former relation is properly denoted by the imperfect, the latter by the pluperfect.

Relative Past.

The following cases occur here :

1. An action *wholly cotemporary*, from beginning to end, with another past one ; thus ——.

Imperfect—Imperfect.

Quum haec scribebam, bellum magnum erat. Decii, quum in hostium aciem irruerant, fulgentes gladios videbant.

2. Both *cotemporary*, yet only so far, that the principal event happened during the continuance of the other ; thus —+.

Imperfect—Perfect.

Quum adolescens essem in Peloponneso, vidi quodam Corinthios. Aratus, quum ejus civitas a tyrannis teneretur, Sicyonem profectus est.

3. Both *cotemporary*, yet so, that the principal action followed immediately from the first, and originated from it. Such sentences often contain the idea of *thereby, therefrom* ; thus also ——.

Perfect—Perfect.

Quum ter praetor renuntiatus sum, (thereby) intellexi. Senatus, quum indicis praemium decrevit, (thereby) indicavit suam sententiam.

4. *Priority* of one past event to another ; the one was earlier than the other which followed it ; thus —— ——.

Pluperfect—Perfect.

Pompeius quum Rhodum venisset, audire voluit Posidonium. Quod Aristides quum audivisset, in concionem venit.

5. *Two events prior to a third already past*, so that one of the first two is again prior to the other ; thus —— ——.

Pluperfect, Pluperfect, Perfect.

Quum, quid Romae actum esset, cognovissem, Brundisium proiectus sum. Dionysius caede familiaris doluit; quem enim amarat, occiderat. Here the verbs *amare*, *occidere* and *dolere* denote a threefold relation of past time, *amare* is prior to *occidere*, and *occidere* to *dolere*. It could also have been expressed: Dionysius, quum familiarem, quem amarat, occidisset, doluit.

6. *Two prior* to a third, but both of these *cotemporary*, as the action of the principal subordinate sentence was cotemporary with, or happened during that of the other; thus
— — —.

Pluperfect, Imperfect, Perfect.

Quum, quid ageres, audivissem, Romam reliqui. Quum Romae, tum quum apud Pharsalum pugnabatur, seditiones coortae essent, Caesar eo proiectus est. Cicero hoc curavit, ut omnes viderent, quod antea fuisset occultum.

III. *The Future.*

(251. f.) This embraces the whole great period that follows the present. When merely the future is considered, there is no reference to what is near or remote in the future. But there is such a reference, where two future events are spoken of, if they are stated in relation to each other, whether they are *cotemporary* or one is *prior* to the other, as it were a *prior future*.

Absolute Future.

Future.

Deus tibi providebit. Hodie apud inferos fortasse cenabimus. Animus non interibit cum reliquo corpore.

Relative Future.

Here the following cases occur :

1. A future event *contemporary* with another future; thus
—. Here neither is considered as yet accomplished.

Future—Future.

Si mihi probabis ea, quae dices, libenter assentiār. Quem librum si legēre volētis, reperiētis. Nunc tu, si putabis me esse conveniendum, constitues, quo loco id commodissime fieri possit.

2. *Priority* of one future event to another; thus — —.

Future-perfect—Future.

Instead of one of these tenses, an imperative also can be used. Si te rogavero aliquid, non respondebis? Si te amicus rogaverit, quid facies? A me, quum paulum otii nacti erimus, ubiores litteras expectato. Subduc cibum unum diem athletae; Jovem Olympium implorabit.

The clauses seldom stand in an inverted order; e. g. Quum tu haec leges, ego illum fortasse convenero.

3. Both so *prior* to another future event implied, that they are considered as completed at the same time, the action contained in the principal clause taking place immediately with the first, and as a consequence of it; thus —.

• Future-perfect—Future-perfect.

Instead of the first future-perfect, an imperative also can be used.

Quae vitia qui fugerit, is omnia fere vitia vitaverit. Haud erravero, si a Zenone principium duxero. Gratiissimum nobis feceris, si hoc a te didicerimus. Tolle hanc opinionem; luctum sustuleris.

(251. g.) In writing, the student should adhere as strictly as possible to this use of the absolute and relative tenses, and should admit no irregularity on account of an occasional departure in the best writers. Especially, should he be careful in the use of the imperfect and pluperfect, which differ very perceptibly, not only from each other, but also from the perfect. The imperfect is used either *absolutely*, and

then signifies the *repetition* of the action or fact, or it is used *relatively*, and then denotes something *cotemporary* with another past action. The perfect, on the contrary, does not indicate the *repetition* of an action, but describes it only as past. If it is said, *Dionysius was thirty-eight years king of Syracuse*, it is expressed by *fuit*; on the contrary, if it is said, *He intrusted (or was wont to intrust) the protection of his body to slaves*, then *committebat* is used, which declares this as characteristic of him, or shows that that action was constantly repeated. Further: *In order that he might not intrust his head to a barber, he taught his daughters to shave him; accordingly after this they shaved their father.* These actions would be expressed by *committet, docuit, tondebant*. There is some difference between the two following sentences: *Themistocles took a walk nightly*, i. e. every night: *Themistocles took a walk the following night*; the former is rendered by *ambulabat*, the latter by *ambulavit*. But if another action, which, in narration, would be the principal event, had occurred cotemporary with the last, then that also must be expressed by *ambulabat*. Moreover, that, which is premised to the narration of the principal action, as its *cause* or *occasion*, if it be partly *prior* to, but also partly *cotemporary* with that which follows, is put in the imperfect. Therefore, when Livy, II. 48, says, *Aequi se oppida receperunt, murisque se tenebant: eo nulla pugna memorabilis fuit*, the *retreating* contained in *recepere*, in relation to the following principal clause, *eo nulla* —, denotes nothing *continuing* or *cotemporary*, but something *prior*, which Livy states merely *historically*, as something past, without reference to the principal clause. On the contrary, the *remaining in the walls*, expressed by, in *murisque se tenebant*, is something *cotemporary*, and contains the reason of the principal clause; hence the imperfect. It could also have been written: *Quum Aeq.—recepissent, murisque se tenebant.*

(251. h.) Finally, sentences with *ut* and *ne*, dependent on a verb signifying *to fear*, are never used in the future, although something future is denoted, but, according to the different tense of the governing verb, either in the present, imperfect or perfect; e. g. *Vereor, ne temeritas tua tibi maerorem det*, or, where the consequence has probably already commenced, *dederit*. *Verebor (veritus sum), ne—daret.* *Verebor, ne—det.* In like manner, sentences denoting *design, intention*, with *ut* (that, in order that, to), although they signify something future, are not put in the future, but in a tense *cotemporary* with the principal clause, either in the present or imperfect; e. g. *Mitto tibi hunc hominem, ut dicat, quid agem.* *Misi—ut diceret, quid agerem.*

Periphrastic Conjugation in the Active.

252. A future action can be represented, either prophetically, as one still *uncertain*, whether it be considered as still *continuing*, or already *completed*, e. g. *I will write or be writing to you (scribam); when I shall have written to you, (scriptum habeo)*.

sero), you will understand (*cognoscere*) *everything definitely*; or it can be so represented, as also to signify that preparations have been made to perform it, and give it a real existence. For this the Latin uses the participle in *urus*, combined with the verb *sum*, because this participle denotes one who is *destined to something by fate, is to be or do something, is willing and inclined to do it*. When Cicero (Fam. II, 7) says, *Paucis diebus sum missurus domesticos tabellarios*, the meaning is, *I intend, design to send* —.

The principal ideas expressed by this form are, *willing, designing, intending, being about, being on the point of, having a mind, having in mind, making preparations*, and the like. Where it denotes an action, which also refers to the future, and the Latin verb is in the subjunctive or infinitive, we often render it by our auxiliaries, *would, should and will*; e. g. *I know that he would have obtained, eum impetratum fuisse; — that he will obtain, eum impetratum esse; I doubt not that he will do this, quin facturus sit.*

253. But an action thus *determined on*, can not only be considered in the three relations of time, present, past, and future, but also as *continuing* and *completed*. It can *continue* in those three relations of time, but be *completed* properly only in the first two. Hence, therefore, there are here also five tenses, the present, imperfect, future, perfect and pluperfect.

The following are general examples :

What are you designing or about to do? Quid estis acturi?

What were you designing to do? Quid eratis acturi?

What will you be about to do? Quid eritis acturi?

What did you design, or were you about to do? Quid fuistis acturi?

What had you designed, or been about to do? Quid fueratis acturi?

Some definite examples from authors :

Hortensius asked his colleague, But you, what do you design to do? (quid acturi estis?) do you intend to deprive the people of justice (e-repturi), and to destroy (e-versuri) the tribunitial power? Pompey was about to go (erat iturus) to Ariminum to the army. The king ought to permit no army to pass through his country, which designs to wage war (gesturus erit) with the Roman people. On account of this, Caesar intended to speak (fuit acturus) in the senate, on the fifteenth of March. The session of the senate was to have been (fuerat futurus) to-day. You intend to shut up Carthage (es clausurus). You were about to unite (conciliaturi fuissestis) with him. When Jupiter was about to precipitate (dejecturus esset) Apollo, Latona prevented him. I have never doubted, that (quin) the Roman people would make (facturus esset) you consul,—would have made (facturus fuerit). There is no doubt that Brutus would have done (facturus fuerit) this. If Flaminius had listened to the auspices, the same would have happened to him (eve-niturum fuissest).

Examples on §§ 222—253.

(1) I went yesterday through the market, with my brother, and wished to visit¹ thy friend. Suddenly a stranger² approached³ us, who, as it appeared, was a man of distinction⁴, and asked us this and that. I had heard him speak⁵ long⁶ of our country, when I at length⁷ asked him, whether⁸ he wished to remain with us, or⁹ to depart¹⁰. I will remain here, said he, and then¹¹, after a few days, will proceed¹². Have I not¹³ sufficient cause to be angry¹⁴ with you, that¹⁵ you have designedly¹⁶ concealed¹⁷ this from me? And truly¹⁸ I will be angry, until thou hast promised¹⁹ to write as soon as possible²⁰. I wish you had sent the letter to me by another. Pompey was with me, when I wrote this, and I told him with pleasure²¹, that²² you were my most intimate²³ friend. I had not doubted²⁴, that²⁵ I should see you at Tarentum. We have not set out upon our journey, because we did not know where we should see your brother. I would write to you often, if my pain had not deprived²⁶ me of all recollection*. If I shall receive the letter which I expect, and if the hope shall be realized, which is caused²⁷ by report²⁸, I will go²⁹ to you. The Romans returned sorrowful³⁰ to their camp; they must have been considered³¹ as vanquished.

¹ visere. ² quidam. ³ accedere. ⁴ nobilis (man of distinction). ⁵ loquens. ⁶ diu. ⁷ tandem. ⁸ utrum. ⁹ an. ¹⁰ discedere. ¹¹ demum. ¹² proficiisci. ¹³ nonne. ¹⁴ irasci. ¹⁵ qui (that you). ¹⁶ consulto. ¹⁷ reticere. ¹⁸ profecto. ¹⁹ polliceri. ²⁰ quam primum (as soon as possible). ²¹ liberum. ²² (acc. with inf.). ²³ amicissimus (most intimate friend). ²⁴ dubium esse. ²⁵ quin. ²⁶ admire. ²⁷ mens. ²⁸ afferre. ²⁹ rumor. ³⁰ se conferre. ³¹ maestus. ³² credere.

(2) I wish you would come¹ to Athens. When the sons of Tarquin had executed² the commands³ of their father, they desired⁴ to ask⁵, to which of them the empire would come hereafter. They received the answer: He shall have the highest power, who will first give a kiss⁶ to his mother. When Theramenes had drunk the poison, he threw⁷ the remainder⁸ from the cup in such a manner⁹, that it reechoed¹⁰, and he said, I drink¹⁰ this to the beautiful Critias! For the Greeks were accustomed, at their feasts¹¹, to name him, to whom they were about to present the cup. Therefore he jested¹², when dying, and predicted¹³ to him, whose health he drank¹⁴, the death which followed¹⁵ shortly after. When an assembly¹⁶ was held¹⁷ in Syracuse, Timoleon came into the theatre, drawn¹⁸ by a span¹⁹ of horses. When Camissares was carrying on war against the Cadusians, he fell fighting bravely. As often as²⁰ a Roman cohort assaulted²¹ the Treveri, a great number of the enemy fell. When the young Torquatus heard that his father would be involved²² in difficulties²³, he ran to Rome, and came, early in the morning²⁴, into the house of his accuser²⁵, Pomponius. When it was announced to him, that he had come, he rejoiced, and immediately arose²⁶ from his bed²⁷. If any one wished, he could view²⁸, in these actions, the life of that man, as in a mirror. Cato relates, that the legions often went²⁹ cheerfully³⁰ to the place, from which they believed that³¹ they should not return. After the battle was over³², you (one) could see³³, how great courage there had been in the army of Catiline.

¹ se recipere. ² perficere. ³ mandatum. ⁴ cupido incessere. ⁵ sciscitari. ⁶ osculum. ⁷ ejicere. ⁸ reliquum. ⁹ ita. ¹⁰ propinare. ¹¹ convivium. ¹² ludere. ¹³ augurari. ¹⁴ cui, praebibere (whose health he drank). ¹⁵ consuequi. ¹⁶ concio. ¹⁷ habere. ¹⁸ vectus. ¹⁹ jumenta juncta (span of horses). ²⁰ quoties (as often as). ²¹ procurare. ²² exhibere. ²³ negotium. ²⁴ prima lux (early in the morning). ²⁵ accusator. ²⁶ surgere. ²⁷ lectulus. ²⁸ intueri. ²⁹ proficiisci. ³⁰ alacer. ³¹ (acc. with inf.). ³² confecto proelio (when the battle was over). ³³ cernere.

(3) Of the same mind¹ was that Lacedemonian² woman, who, when she lost³ her son in battle, said, I bore⁴ him, that he might be one who would not hesitate⁵ to die for his country. The messengers announced these words of the king at home; and now preparations⁶ were making for war on both sides⁷, with great power; yet the issue of the war made the conflict less mournful⁸. Whoever despises⁹ vain-glory, will

obtain¹⁰ the true. I wish that you believed¹¹, that I would have preferred¹² your will to my own interest, if you had come to me. No one then used his mind without his body; in peace and in war, good morals were honored; altercations¹³ and hostilities¹⁴ they practised with the enemy, but citizens vied with citizens for¹⁶ excellence¹⁶. O that¹⁷ I may yet see the day, when I can thank¹⁸ you, that you have hitherto¹⁹ assisted²⁰ me so faithfully²¹. When you come to Athens, we shall be able to come to a conclusion²² concerning our whole journey. I will answer you, but not before you have answered me. When there is anything certain respecting this, I will inform²³ you immediately. Aid²⁴ us by thine opinion²⁵; when thou hast done this, thou wilt promote²⁶ our common²⁷ interest. O that you may reach²⁸ that happy age, that you may be able to enjoy these advantages. A day would not be sufficient²⁹, if I wished to defend the causes of the poor. Then the Albans could have been seen³⁰, at one time³¹, joyful, at another, terrified³².

¹anīmus. ²Lacaena (Lacedemonian woman). ³amittēre. ⁴gig-
nēre. ⁵dubitare. ⁶parare aliquid (to make preparation for something).
⁷utrimque (on both sides). ⁸miserabilis. ⁹spernēre. ¹⁰habēre. ¹¹ita
existimare. ¹²anteferre. ¹³jurgium. ¹⁴simultas. ¹⁵de. ¹⁶virtus. ¹⁷uti-
nam. ¹⁸gratias agēre. ¹⁹adhuc. ²⁰inservire. ²¹fideliter. ²²consilium
capēre (to come to a conclusion). ²³certiorem facēre. ²⁴adjuvare.
²⁵sententia. ²⁶inservire. ²⁷comūnus. ²⁸pervenire. ²⁹deficēre (not to
be sufficient). ³⁰animadvertisēre. ³¹modo (at one time). ³²pavidus.

(4) I would cheerfully grant¹ all riches² to all, if it were lawful for me to live in this manner. Any one³ could say with truth⁴, that⁵ death is a journey⁶ to those regions⁷ which they inhabit⁸, who have departed⁹ from this life. When I had sailed¹⁰ from Epidaurus to the Piraeus, I there visited¹¹ Marcellus, and spent¹² a day, that¹³ I might be with him. On the following day, when I had left¹⁴ him, with the intention¹⁵ of¹⁶ going to Boeotia, he wished, as he said, to sail to Italy. Do you wish, while I live¹⁷, and while¹⁸ the rest of the army is unimpaired, with which I took Carthage, in one day, to snatch¹⁹ the province Spain from the Roman people? There are the Balearian islands, the larger of which has a harbor, where Mago believed, (for it was already the end²⁰ of autumn,) that he should spend the winter²¹ conveniently²². But they met²³ the fleet in a hostile²⁴ manner, so that the ships did not venture to enter²⁵ the harbor. Thence they passed over²⁶ to the smaller island. Since²⁷ the Scipios came

into our province, they have ceased²⁸, at no time, to do what was pleasing²⁹ to us. But, when we were already on the point³⁰ of³¹ being in a desirable³² condition³³, these Scipios died. Then we seemed truly to be brought back³⁴ to our former condition*, to³⁵ see again a new destruction³⁶ of our state, when you unexpectedly³⁷ sent to us this Scipio. Catiline knew everything which took place³⁸ in the state, dared³⁹ everything, and could endure⁴⁰ cold, hunger and thirst.

¹ concedere. ² opes. ³ quispiam. ⁴ vere. ⁵ (acc. with inf.). ⁶ migratio. ⁷ ora. ⁸ incolere. ⁹ discedere. ¹⁰ navi advēhi locum. ¹¹ convenire. ¹² consumere. ¹³ ut. ¹⁴ digrēdi ab aliquo. ¹⁵ consilium. ¹⁶ (ut with subj.). ¹⁷ meae vivo (while I live). ¹⁸ cetēro incolūmi exercitu (while — unimpaired). ¹⁹ eripere. ²⁰ extrēmum. ²¹ hibernare. ²² commōde. ²³ occurrē. ²⁴ hostiliter. ²⁵ intrare aliquid. ²⁶ trājicēre. ²⁷ ex quo. ²⁸ desistēre. ²⁹ secundus. ³⁰ prope esse (to be on the point). ³¹ ut. ³² optabilis. ³³ fortuna. ³⁴ retrahēre. ³⁵ status. ³⁶ ut. ³⁷ excidium. ³⁸ ex insperato. ³⁹ gen. ⁴⁰ audēre. ⁴⁰ ferre.

DEPENDENCE OF TENSES.

254. In all dependent sentences which are connected by the particles *that*, *in order that*, *who*, *which* (*qui* with the subjunctive), and by any of the interrogative words, or in any other manner, and in all those sentences which have a *mutual connection* with each other, even if they are not dependent on one another, the tenses of the verbs must agree, i. e. they must be similar.—Examples of sentences dependent on each other: *Who is there, that does not know this? He requested me, that I would write to him shortly. Pliny read no book, from which he did not make extracts.* The following is an example of a sentence, whose parts are mutually connected with, and related to each other: *We endure smaller pains, that we may not experience greater ones, as we should, if we did not do this.* There are, however, marked differences between the dependence of tenses in the English, and the Latin. Some of these will be pointed out in what follows, and others will be manifest from the examples.

255. The relative meaning of the principal and subordinate clauses in a sentence must alone, in all cases, determine the necessary tense. The three primary tenses, the present,

perfect and future, are mutually related to one another, in the same manner as the imperfect and pluperfect, neither of which are ever connected with a present or future, though they are with a historical perfect. It is therefore necessary to understand fully the signification of each tense.

I. *The Present.*

256. (1) The present is followed by the present, when the action described by the dependent sentence occurs also in the present, and, therefore, is cotemporary with the action described by the principal sentence; e. g. *I wish that I had* (*ut habeam*) ; *thou art* (*es*) *not in circumstances to be ignorant* (*nescias*) *of what is* (*sit*) *proper* ; *where is* (*est*) *there a state*, *which has* (*habeat*) *not wicked citizens* ? *I wish* (*velim*), *that you would write* (*scribas*) *to me soon*, *how you do* (*quid agas*). So also after verbs denoting *fear*, a present, and not a future, is used : *I fear that it will rain* (*ne pluat*). So also in sentences with *that*, denoting *intention*, *wish* and *command*. Comp. § (251. h.)

(2) The present is followed by the perfect, when the action denoted by the dependent sentence is *past*. The English sometimes improperly uses the imperfect; e. g. *Think* (*cogita*) *how fate has hitherto dealt* (*e gerit*) *with us* ; *I fear* (*vereor*) *that this letter gave* (*has given*) (*de derint*) *you more grief than joy* ; *where is* (*est*) *there a state, which has not had* (*habuerit*) *wicked citizens* ? *I doubt not, that the whole multitude would have turned to you*, quin — *conversura fuerit*, not *fuisset*.

The present is also employed with the accusative and infinitive; e. g. *I acknowledge that there have been* (*fuisse*) *many men of great mind*; but *esse* would be *cotemporary* with *fate or* (*that there are many men*).

An imperfect also is admissible, only when a *repeated* action is signified; e. g. *It is added to this, that, or besides this* (*huc accedit*) *your desire was* (*esset*) *more concealed and hidden*,—*where, moreover, huc accedit*, could have scarcely any influence, and without

it, the sentence would be expressed, *Vestra ista cupiditas erat, non fuit.* *Non dubium est, quin multi, qui naturae vitia habent, restituuerentur et corrigerentur ab natura aut arte atque medicina,*—where also the clause, *non dubium est*, for *sine dubio*, has no influence upon the verb. And so in similar places, where there is an apparent departure from the rule.

(3) The present is followed by the future, when a future action is spoken of; e. g. *I doubt (dubito) not, that you will think so, existimatur sis;* *I know not in what way this will break out, eruptur a sint.* Often also the present is sufficient, as in *posse*, which wants the periphrastic future; e. g. *I doubt not, that I shall be able to overtake you, quin te possim consequi.* Sentences which express a *fear*, and those which denote *intention, wish and command*, constitute an exception here. For such sentences, see § (251. h.).

Remarks.

257. (1) Where the present of a principal sentence is a historical present (see § 224), which is used for an imperfect or a perfect, not only a present, but also an imperfect, and, where the actions are completed, instead of a perfect, a pluperfect can follow in the dependent sentence; e. g. *Caesar persuades (persuadet) him, that he would undertake this, conaretur for conetur; he makes known (aperit) to him what he had learned (comperisset, for compererit) from the letter.*

(2) When, before such sentences as, *What would you do, if your father should now come; what would you have done, if your father had come,* a present is used, e. g. *Tell me, dicas mihi;* then such conditional sentences are wholly independent of that present, and, therefore, the usual tenses remain, viz. the imperfect and pluperfect; *dicas mihi, quid faceres, si pater nunc veniret (venisset), dicas mihi, quid fecisses, si pater venisset.* Hence, *Non dubito quin, si modo essem in republica senatus, statua huic statuere-* *tur* (*Cic. Sext. 38*), is correct.

II. *The Imperfect.*

258. (1) The imperfect is followed by the imperfect, when the action of the dependent sentence, is *contemporary* with the other, and is still *continuing* in the same past; e. g. *Apelles used to say (dicebat), that those painters were deficient (peccare), who did not know (sentirent) what was (essem) enough.* *All were waiting (expectabant), what Verres would then*

de (acturus esset). Thorius used to live (vivebat) in such a manner, that there was (esset) no pleasure of which he did not have an abundance, qua non abundaret.

(2) The imperfect is followed by the pluperfect, when the action of the dependent sentence is *prior to*, and not cotemporary with the other; e. g. *We did not know (nesciebamus) till now, what had been done (actum esset) at Rome. Because I was afraid (verebar) that letter had caused (fecissent) you sadness, I immediately sent you this new one.*

A clause with *ut*, containing a conclusion drawn from what precedes, is often considered wholly independent of anything before, and, therefore, in this clause, a present, perfect or future, can follow even an imperfect. Thus Cicero says, Fin. II. 20, *Thorius erat ita non (so little) timidus ad mortem, ut in acie sit ob rem publicam interfactus.* Here an event follows, which took place neither *during* nor *before* the other; the consequence of his courage is considered independent of what precedes, and moreover, is not *cotemporary* with the preceding *permanent* fact, as, in that case, an imperfect would be more suitable in the conclusion.

III. The Perfect.

259. (1) The perfect is followed by the present, when the action of the dependent sentence is confined to the present merely, and has no relation to the past; especially therefore, when the (present) design or result of a past action is stated, which is to be viewed only in the present; e. g. *It has been enjoined (tributum est) by nature upon the race of animals, that each should protect (tueatur) himself and his life. I have undertaken (sumpsi) this new work, that I may not give myself up (dedam) wholly to sorrow. Caesar has so distinguished (eminuit) himself by his achievements, that he is considered (habetur) the greatest general. You have come here to murder (ut juguletis) him.* A present also follows a perfect subjunctive, when it is used as a present; e. g. *If I deny this, wise men can see (viderint) how justly I do it (faciam).*

260. (2) The perfect is followed by the imperfect. In this

case, the perfect of the principal sentence is used as a historical tense, which is its most frequent use. See § 237. When, therefore, the action of the dependent sentence is considered *contemporary* with that of the principal sentence, and also *continuing*, the imperfect is employed ; e. g. *There were (fuerunt) some philosophers, who denied (negarent) this. I requested (petivi) you to consider (haberetis) all as your friends, whom I should recommend (commendarem) to you. You came here (in a former time) to murder him (ut-jugularetis). Did he not write (nonne scripsit) to you recently, that you might prepare (parares) yourself for this event. At that time, there was scarcely one, to whom gain was (esset) not pleasing.*

Clauses denoting a *purpose* which stands in connection with past time, are expressed by the imperfect alone ; e. g. *The father intrusted his son to you, in order that you might instruct him, ut eum instrueres; he withdrew, that he might not be suspected, ne in suspicionem veniret.* So in, *He wrote this book to be useful. Words were invented to make known the mind, ut indicarent.* So in clauses which express a *wish, command or fear*, respecting the past. Comp. § (251. h.) But in clauses containing a conclusion, the imperfect is used, for the most part, only when there is a *repeated, continuing* action ; otherwise the perfect. Comp. § 261.

(3) The perfect is followed by the perfect. This is the case :

261. (a) When a *conclusion* is drawn from what precedes, which, in respect to time, agrees directly with the action of the principal sentence, and is considered properly as an independent sentence, without any reference to *continuance* and *repetition*, denoting only what is past. This often occurs with *ut*, after the words *sic, tam, adeo, tantum, tantus* and the like ; e. g. *The cruelty of Verres towards the people was so great, that many took their own lives, mortem sibi consicerint. Didst thou so wholly lose thy sense of shame and chastity, that thou didst dare (ausus sis) to say this in a temple? In this tumult, a senator was so abused, that he lost (amiserit) his life.*

Yet when such a clause with *that*, is considered as *continuing* during the time of the other, or as *repeated* and wholly *contemporary* with it, the imperfect is used. Comp. § 260.

(b) When *qui non* and *quin* stand in the dependent clause, which is *cotemporary* with the other; e. g. *No one came to Messina, without seeing this image, quin — vidērit. Was there indeed a conflagration in this city, to which we did not hasten? cui non subvene rimus.*

But when such a sentence denotes a *cotemporary* and *repeated* action, the imperfect is better; e. g. *Pliny read no book, from which he did not make extracts, quem non excerpēret* (also *excerps erit*). So also in the following sentences: *What place was there then so remote, that it was concealed? (latere t) Who sailed upon the sea at that time, who did not expose (committeret) himself to the danger of slavery?*

262. (4) The perfect is followed by the pluperfect, when the action of the dependent sentence is completed before that of the principal sentence; e. g. *Caligula boasted (gloriatu s est) to Caesonia, how much he had done (quantum egisset), while she was asleep at mid-day. Theophrastus, when dying, complained of (accusavit) nature, because she had given (quod dedisset) so short a life to men.*

263. (5) The perfect is followed by the future, when the action is future; e. g. *Thou hast brought it to this (effec- cisti) by thy faithlessness, that no one will trust (fidem habiturus sit) you in future.*

The future stands also with the perfect subjunctive, which is used for the present; e. g. *We cannot easily say (dixerimus) how much we shall benefit (profuturi simus) others herein.*

IV. *The Pluperfect.*

264. (1) The pluperfect is followed by the imperfect, when the action of the dependent sentence is *cotemporary* with the other in the past; e. g. *I had charged Herodes to write (scribēret) to you immediately. The Gauls had posted the bowmen between the horsemen, that these might come to the assistance of (succurrerent) their friends.*

Nevertheless, in clauses with *ut*, containing a conclusion, the historical perfect is also properly placed instead of the imperfect, because such sentences are generally considered independent; e. g. *Their strength had so much increased, that they attempted it* (*ut ausi sint, for auderent.*)

(2) The pluperfect is followed by the pluperfect, when the action of the dependent sentence is *completed* prior to that of the principal sentence; e. g. *When I had heard what had happened* (*accidisset*) *to you, I was greatly rejoiced.*

V. The Future.

265. (1) The future is followed by the present, when the action is almost cotemporary, already near, and, as it were, taking place.

We sometimes use a future instead of a present; but the Latin is here satisfied with the future of the principal sentence, and puts the other in the present, but always of the subjunctive mode; e. g. *I will not doubt, that you will faithfully perform* (*perficias*) *the duty. Thou wilt see from this letter, how I am (sim) disposed towards thee. Where shall we find such, as will not prefer, qui non anteponant.* So also in sentences denoting fear; e. g. *Thou wilt justly fear, that he may (or will) confess* (*fateatur*) *this.*

(2) The future is followed by the perfect, when the action of the dependent sentence is already past; e. g. *I will not allow, that that letter was (fuerint) more pleasing to you than to me. I will tell you* (*dicam*) *in few words, why you ought not to have believed* (*non debueris credere*) *this report.*

(3) The future is followed by the future, when the action of the dependent sentence is in *future time*, but later than that in the principal sentence; e. g. *Any one will indeed be uncertain* (*dubitabit*), *what he will accomplish* (*perficiatur*) *sit by his virtue, who has already accomplished so much by his authority,—this could not be expressed by perficiat. Shall we therefore say, that those youth are hopeful,*

of whom we shall believe that they will attend to (in servitūs) their own interests, and will do (facturos) what is profitable for themselves?

VI. The Future-perfect.

266. (1) The future-perfect is followed by the present, when the action of the dependent sentence refers to the present time; e. g. *When you have (shall have) written me as soon as possible, how you are, (quid agas), then —. I will send you the book, as soon as I have found (shall have found) some one, to whom I can safely intrust it, cui recte committam.*

(2) The future-perfect is followed by the perfect, when the action of the dependent sentence is a past one; e. g. *I shall always be anxious respecting what you are doing, till I have (shall have) ascertained, how you have done (quid egeris).*

Remarks.

267. (1) The two infinitives *sore* and *futurum esse* are followed by the conjunction *ut*, either with a present or an imperfect after them; this depends upon the tense of the principal sentence; e. g. *I believe that you will easily learn this language, credo fore, ut hanc lingua facile discas. I believed (have believed, had believed) that you would easily learn this language, credebam (credidi, credidimus) fore, ut hanc lingua facile disceres.*

(2) Since the present infinitive, as it denotes *contemporary* action, is also the infinitive of the imperfect, and the perfect infinitive, as it denotes *priority* of action, is also the infinitive of the pluperfect and future-perfect, therefore, according as each is the one or the other, a different construction can follow it; e. g. *Many men are wont to lament, that they are without pleasures, multi deplorare (present) solent, quod voluptatibus careant. These men were wont to complain, that they were without pleasures, hi homines deplorare (contemporary past) solebant, quod voluptatibus carerent. Theophrastus relates that Cimon commanded (imperasse) his stewards, to give all things to every one who might put up at his manor, omnia praebent, not praebant, because it depends on imperasse.*

Examples on §§ 254—267.

(1) What is there, which I could wish more heartily¹, than that² you had returned safe to your country, and that you had obtained³ the object⁴ of your journey? There will never be a time, when the remembrance of thy favors to me will perish⁵.

Cato the elder⁶ reminded⁷ his son in a letter, to¹³ take care⁸ not⁹ to go¹⁰ into a battle, as he was no soldier. Ulysses endured¹¹ the insults¹² of his slaves, in order that¹³ he might attain¹⁴ that which he wished; but he had so deformed himself, that no one recognized¹⁵ him. When the Stoic Dionysius had a pain in the kidneys¹⁶, he exclaimed, that¹⁷ that was false, which he before believed¹⁸ respecting pain. You ask me to¹² read and examine your books, whether¹⁹ they are worth publishing²⁰. Many books of the ancients have so perished²¹, that²² now they nowhere²³ appear. Let us imagine²⁴, that²⁵ there is one man who has nothing evil, and upon whom fate has inflicted²⁶ no wound. If night does not deprive²⁷ us of happy life, I do not know, why the last day of life should deprive us of it. Every one hopes for the fortune of Metellus, just as if²⁸, in human affairs²⁹, there were anything certain, or, as if it were wiser to hope than to fear. You have been so brought up³⁰ and instructed³¹, that³² you must do this, unless you wish to be a different³³ man from³⁴ what³⁵ we have learned to consider³⁶ you. Under the direction of this man³⁷, we so conducted³⁸ ourselves, as to consult rather³⁹ for all, than for ourselves. Seneca inquired⁴⁰, in his treatise on Providence, why evils⁴¹ beset⁴² even the good, when⁴³ yet there was a Providence.

¹ magis ex animo. ² ut. ³ assēqui. ⁴ consilium. ⁵ mori. ⁶ senex.
⁷ monēre. ⁸ eavēre (to take care). ⁹ ne. ¹⁰ int̄re aliquid. ¹¹ perferre.
¹² contumelia. ¹³ ut (in order that). ¹⁴ pervenire. ¹⁵ agnoscēre. ¹⁶ ex
renibus labore (had — kidneys). ¹⁷ (acc. with inf.). ¹⁸ sentire. ¹⁹ ne.
²⁰ editio. ²¹ evanescēre. ²² ut. ²³ nusquam. ²⁴ fingēre. ²⁵ (acc. with inf.).
²⁶ infligēre. ²⁷ adm̄ere. ²⁸ perinde quasi (just as if). ²⁹ humanae res.
³⁰ educare (to bring up). ³¹ docēre. ³² ut. ³³ alius (a different man).
³⁴ ac (from). ³⁵ qualis. ³⁶ cognoscēre. ³⁷ hoc auctore (under — man).
³⁸ gerēre. ³⁹ potius. ⁴⁰ quaerēre. ⁴¹ malum. ⁴² accidēre. ⁴³ quum (when
yet).

(2) I had commanded¹ your brother to² write to you; but I know not how³ it happened⁴, that⁵ he did not write to you. Suetonius says, in the life of Vespasian, No one⁵ will easily⁶ be found, who, when innocent⁷, was punished by him, unless he were absent, or it were done without⁸ his knowledge and wish. He will never⁹ ask of you anything, which will be displeasing to you. When Pompey the Great visited¹⁰ Posidonius in sickness*, and said, that he was grieved¹¹ that¹² he could not hear him, he replied, I will not allow¹³, that¹⁴ my pain should cause¹⁵ so great a man to** come to me in vain¹⁶. Who is so wretched¹⁷, that¹⁸ he has not, at certain times of

his life, experienced¹⁹ the kindness²⁰ of the gods, and who must not acknowledge²¹, that²² there have been many things which he has received from the gods ? I deny²³ that²⁴ there was any painting which Verres did not search²⁵ for, examine²⁶ and carry²⁷ away. Is²⁸ he worthy of the name of a rational²⁹ man, who employs³⁰ all his life in pleasure ? Who is so desirous³¹ of learning to understand³² nature, that³³ he does not, when the danger of his country has been announced³⁴ to him, relinquish all these, even if he thought, that he could survey³⁵ the vast world ? I have contended³⁶ with no one, who³⁷ has not yielded³⁸ to me. We all fear, that³⁹ this will not eventuate well⁴⁰.

¹ mandare. ² ut. ³ quo. ⁴ fieri. ⁵ (comp. § 122). ⁶ temere. ⁷ insons. ⁸ eo ignaro et invito (without — wish). ⁹ nihil unquam. ¹⁰ visere. ¹¹ (adjective). ¹² moleste ferre (active). ¹³ quod. ¹⁴ committere. ¹⁵ ut. ¹⁶ efficere. ¹⁷ frustra. ¹⁸ miser. ¹⁹ ut. ²⁰ sentire. ²¹ benignitas. ²² confitendum esse (must acknowledge). ²³ (acc. with inf.). ²⁴ negare. ²⁵ (acc. with inf.) ²⁶ conquerore. ²⁷ inaspicere. ²⁸ auferre. ²⁹ num is est (is he). ³⁰ sanus. ³¹ collocare in aliqua re. ³² cupidus. ³³ perspicere. ³⁴ ut. ³⁵ afferre. ³⁶ metiri. ³⁷ arma conferre. ³⁸ quin (who not). ³⁹ succumbere. ⁴⁰ ne. ⁴¹ feliciter evenire (to eventuate well).

(3) There are some¹ disgraceful² things, which the wise man would not do, even if he could save³ his country. Dogs are said to drink from the Nile, while running, that they may not be seized⁴ by the crocodiles. Thou wilt find no one, to whom something has not flowed⁵ from that most benign⁶ fountain of the Deity. From many biographies⁷ of renowned men, it is not very⁸ evident⁹, what was the disposition¹⁰ and virtue of those men, and by what means they obtained¹¹ so great renown. Since¹² he has been with me and accompanied me, I have perceived¹³ in him so great fidelity¹⁴, that I value no man more. At the close¹⁵ of your letter, you write, that, if your reasons¹⁶ satisfied¹⁷ me, you would not trouble¹⁸ yourself about what others might think or say respecting them. I will relate, at the proper¹⁹ time, how the son of Arminius was treated²⁰ at Ravenna. I have let no one pass²¹, to whom I have not given a letter for you. There is no one, who could advise²² you more wisely, than yourself. Now I will mention²³ his domestic life, and how he lived and conducted²⁴ himself at home and among his friends. There have been many, who have withdrawn²⁵ from public business, and retired²⁶ to private life. Cicero did all these things, that he might reconcile²⁷ Pompey to himself.

¹ quaedam. ² flagitiōsus. ³ conservare. ⁴ rapere. ⁵ manare. ⁶ benign-

nissimus. ⁷viti. ⁸satis. ⁹apparēre. ¹⁰anīmus. ¹¹consēqui. ¹²ex quo.
¹³cognoscēre. ¹⁴fides. ¹⁵extrēmae littērae (the close of a letter).
¹⁶ratio. ¹⁷placēre. ¹⁸laborare. ¹⁹suus. ²⁰tractare. ²¹praetermittēre
 (to let pass). ²²sudāre. ²³referre. ²⁴se gerēre. ²⁵se removēre. ²⁶ad
 otium perfugēre (retire — life). ²⁷sibi conciliare.

(4) When Marcellus had taken the city Syracuse, he gave orders¹, that² no one should put to death Archimedes, by whose exertion³ the city had been so long defended. All those works⁴ have been so written, that⁵ now they are not even⁶ read. There have been many illustrious⁷ men in our state, who were wont to explain⁸ the civil law to the people. Many believe, that¹⁶ the law is a precept, the force of which is of such a nature⁹, that¹⁰ it commands to do right, and forbids to do wrong¹¹. Nature has lavished¹² so great an abundance¹³ of things for the use of men, that¹⁴ all this seems to be bestowed upon us designedly¹⁵. I will prove, that¹⁶ Ulysses had* a cause for killing Ajax. Have I not¹⁷ sufficient cause to be angry¹⁸ with you, that¹⁹ you designedly conceal²⁰ from me all these things? There will always be persons, who will complain that²¹ God has cared²² less for them, than for others. When the defendant** says, that²³ he has erred from ignorance²⁴, the inquiry is²⁵, whether²⁶ he could have known or not²⁷. Who is there, that does not know what pleasure is? It is known to all, that¹⁶ Epaminondas, Julias Caesar, Alexander and Hannibal were the greatest commanders.

¹edicēre (to give orders). ²ne quis (that no one). ³opēra. ⁴liber.
⁵ut. ⁶ne—quidem (comp. § 472). ⁷summus. ⁸interpretari. ⁹is (such
 a nature). ¹⁰ut. ¹¹delinquēre. ¹²largiri. ¹³ubertas. ¹⁴ut. ¹⁵consulto.
¹⁶(acc. with inf.). ^{*}esse. ¹⁷nonne. ¹⁸succensēre. ¹⁹quod. ²⁰reticēre
 (subj.). ²¹quod. ²²consulēre. ^{**}reus. ²³(acc. with inf.). ²⁴imprudens
 (from ignor.). ²⁵quaeritur (the — is). ²⁶utrum. ²⁷annon (or not).

(5) It is my fate, that¹ no one, for these twenty years, has been an enemy of the state, who has not at the same time declared² war against me also. I do not see, either in my life or in my actions³, what Antony could despise⁴. I see no one among this assembly⁵ of senators, who has not cared⁶ for my good, and to whom I am not attached⁷ by the unceasing⁸ remembrance of his kindness. There was no one then so infirm at Agrigentum, that⁹ he did not, on that night, excited by this report, arise¹⁰ and seize¹¹ a weapon. Æmilius Paulus brought¹² so much money into the treasury, that the spoil of this one commander put¹³ an end to taxation. Who was there, at that time, at Syracuse, who¹⁴ had not heard,

and did not know, that this agreement¹⁵ had been made? There is no one among us, who does not, at this very¹⁶ time, wish that¹⁷ Caesar might be conquered as soon as possible¹⁸. I have so lived, that I do not believe¹⁹, that²⁰ I have been born in vain. Dolabella was so unmindful²¹ of humanity, that he committed insatiable cruelty, not only upon²² the living, but also upon the dead.

¹ ut. ² indicere. ³ res gesta. ⁴ despicere. ⁵ concessus. ⁶ esse curae. ⁷ obstructus. ⁸ sempiternus. ⁹ ut. ¹⁰ surgere. ¹¹ arripere. ¹² invehere in. ¹³ finem alicujus afferre. ¹⁴ quin (who — not). ¹⁵ pactio. ¹⁶ ipse. ¹⁷ ut. ¹⁸ quam primum. ¹⁹ existimare. ²⁰ (acc. with inf.) ²¹ immemor. ²² in (with ablative).

(6) Your kindness and that of your commander toward¹ us has been so great, that we do not regret our defeat². I see not, what more shameless³ could be said. Hast thou lost⁴ shame and modeaty⁵ to such an extent⁶, that thou darest to say this in this holy temple? The Carthaginians were so much terrified⁷ by this calamity⁸, that they entreated the Romans also to aid them. This one⁹ act of Regulus is worthy of admiration, that¹⁰ he thought¹¹, that¹² the captives ought to be retained¹³. To me indeed¹⁴, the composing¹⁵ of this book has been so pleasing, that it has not only removed¹⁶ all the troubles¹⁷ of age, but has even rendered¹⁸ age easy¹⁹ and pleasant. Pythius called²⁰ the fishermen²¹ to himself, and requested them to* fish²², the following day, before his gardens. Ambiorix exhorted²³ the Nervii not²⁴ to lose²⁵ the opportunity to avenge²⁶ themselves for the injuries which they had received. He who is in fear²⁷ that²⁸ he shall lose²⁹ some of** his goods, cannot be happy. Metellus was so scrupulous³⁰, that he came to the judges, and said that he was troubledt by the erasure³¹ of one name. Who could pardon him, who had taken³² it upon himself to correct³³ the habits, and to censure³⁴ the faults³⁵ of others, when he himself had neglected³⁶ his own duty?

¹ erga. ² clades. ³ impudens. ⁴ perdere. ⁵ pudicitia. ⁶ adeōne (to — extent). ⁷ perterrēre. ⁸ malum. ⁹ hoc unum (this one act). ¹⁰ quod. ¹¹ censere. ¹² (acc. with inf.). ¹³ retinendum esse. ¹⁴ quidem. ¹⁵ confessio. ¹⁶ abstergere. ¹⁷ molestia. ¹⁸ efficere. ¹⁹ mollis. ²⁰ convocare. ²¹ piscator. ²² *ut. ²³ piscari. ²⁴ ne (not to). ²⁵ dimittere. ²⁶ ulcisci aliquid. ²⁷ timere (to be in fear.) ²⁸ ne. ²⁹ perdere. ³⁰ ex. ³¹ diligentia (comp. § 193). ³² movere. ³³ litura. ³⁴ sumere sibi (to take — himself). ³⁵ corrigere. ³⁶ reprehendere. ³⁷ peccatum. ³⁸ ab officio declinare (to neglect duty).

MODES OF VERBS.

268. Modes denote the manner and way of considering an action, whether *definitely* and *certainly*, or *indefinitely*, *uncertainly* and *doubtfully*, or *imperatively*, the last indicating that something should or should not be done. When an action is represented in one of these three ways, it is done in relation to the *subject* of the sentence. But it makes no difference, whether the action is *positive* or *negative*, because the *negative* sentence may be as definite, as the positive.

There are three modes, the indicative, subjunctive and imperative.

A. The Indicative.

269. The indicative attributes something to the subject with *definiteness* and *certainty*, either positively or negatively, and therefore it represents an event as an *actual fact*; e. g. *Dum aegroto anima est, vivit, as long as the patient breathes, he lives.*

The indicative is used, both in principal and subordinate sentences, as the example shows. In the latter it is connected, either with the pronoun *qui*, *quae*, *quod*, and those derived from it, or with a conjunction. But the pronoun *qui*, *quae*, *quod*, often partakes of the nature of such a conjunction, as, in Latin, is followed by the subjunctive. Hence the indicative does not always follow this pronoun, although it might, perhaps, be expected in English, but often the subjunctive. This will be treated hereafter, under its proper head. So there are a number of conjunctions, which always have the subjunctive after them. These also will be treated particularly hereafter.

In principal sentences, on the contrary, the indicative prevails entirely, as in English, when something definite and certain is predicated of the subject. Sentences beginning with the conjunctions *for*, *hence*, *therefore*, *yet* and *but*, are also principal sentences.

270. Yet sometimes, the English uses the potential or subjunctive, where the Latin speaks definitely in the indicative. Here belong :

(1) Such phrases as, *It would be too tedious, it were too tedious*, expressed by *longum, immensum, infinitum, multum est*; *it would have been too tedious*, expressed by *longum erat*; e. g. *it would be too tedious to enumerate all the examples* (*longum est*). So, *It were difficult, difficile est*; *it would have been difficult, difficile erat*; *I could (possim) quote, — I could have (poteram, potui) quoted many delights of my country life, but —*. The distinction here between the English and the Latin consists in this, that in Latin these statements are expressed *absolutely* and *unconditionally* (*it is tedious*), while in English we express them for the most part with an *implied* or *suppressed condition* (*it would be tedious, i. e. if I should proceed*).

(270. a.) (2) When some *duty* or *necessity* is denoted; thus with *oportere, debere, necesse esse, aequum, par, justum, consentaneum, officium esse, convenire* and the like, unless the clause be a part of a conditional sentence. So with the periphrastic conjugation in the passive. In translating the above words, we frequently use the indicative. The Latins think of every duty, as an absolute necessity; hence the indicative. They always employ the indicative present, when something present is spoken of, and the imperfect or perfect, when something past is spoken of, the pluperfect indicative but seldom; e. g. *You should (or ought) to strive more (now)*, *debet majorem dare operam*; *this should (or ought to) rather have been taught*, *illud potius praecipiendum fuit*, not *fuisset*; *the coming of this man should (ought to) have been wished for by Sulla himself*, *esse debuit*, not *debuisse*; *Verres received the money which ought to have been given to the states of Sicily*, *dari oportuit*, not *opportuisset*; *this word should not have been changed*, *mutari non debebat* (*debuit*), or *mutandum non erat* (*fuit*);

how becoming it would have been (quam bellum erat) rather to confess your ignorance; it would be more proper (aequius est) for you to be silent; it would have been more proper (aequius erat, fuit, fuerat) for you to have been silent. So also, nihil erat, quod, it would not have been necessary that—, not fuisset.

The same usage often occurs with the adverbs *nearly* and *almost*, *paene* and *prope*, when *si* or *nisi* with the subjunctive pluperfect follows, even if a matter of fact is spoken of; e. g. *The Sublician bridge would almost have furnished the enemy a passage, had it not been for one man, pons Sublicius iter paene hostibus dedit, ni unus vir fuisset.* We often use the indicative, however; e. g. *I had almost forgotten what I ought especially to have written, prope oblitus sum, quod maxime fuit scribendum.*

(270. b.) (3) After the words *whoever*, *whichever*, *whatever*, *wherever*, *however* and the like, we often use the potential, although in the indefinite expression a real fact is contained. The indicative is also very frequently used. But the Latin joins the words *quicunque*, *quisquis*, *qualiscumque*, *quantuscumque*, *utcumque*, *ubicumque*, *quotquot*, *quoquo modo*, *cuiuscumque*, *utrum* and the like, with the indicative, when they belong to a sentence, which, in definite discourse, is expressed by the indicative; e. g. *Whoever this is or may be*, *quicumque est*; *this doctrine, from whomsoever it may be*, *cujuscumque est*; *whatever that may be* (*quidquid est illud*), *which he thinks*; *however matters are or may be*, *quoquo modo se res habent*; *wherever this may have happened*, *ubicumque hoc factum est*. It is so also with *sive—sive*. Comp. § 280. The indicative here denotes that, though we do not know, or do not wish to know, what, where, when, or how a thing is, it is yet *actual* and *really exists* under some circumstances or other.

Examples on §§ 268—(270. b.)

Wherever a parricidel¹ may be committed, there it is done maliciously²; and whoever may have done^{*} it, is worthy of the punishment³ of death. It would be too tedious⁴ to reply to all which has been said by you. Good men practice every

duty, however⁵ it may be called. The curious⁶ desire⁷ to know all things, of whatever kind⁸ they are. These writings, of whatever kind⁹ they may be, please my friends. Truly, no¹⁰ wine ought to have been given¹¹ you, since you are suffering¹² from a fever. Themistocles did not endure¹³ the grief¹⁴ of his ungrateful country, as¹⁵ he ought to have done**. Thy daughter must have died¹⁶ some years after¹⁷, because¹⁸ she was born a mortal. Volumnia should¹⁹ have been more kind²⁰ than she has been, and the very things which she has done, she could have done more circumspectly. Cicero then mentioned only a few brave Romans; for it would have been tedious²¹ to have named all. This circumstance²² has escaped²³ me, which perhaps ought not. It would certainly be just for²⁴ you to write as often²⁵ as possible to your parents. It would have been better, that Agamemnon had not kept²⁶ his promise.

¹ parricidium. ² impröbe. ³ facere. ⁴ supplicium (punishment of death). ⁵ longum. ⁶ quomodocumque. ⁷ curiosus. ⁸ cupere. ⁹ cujuscumque modi (of — kind). ¹⁰ qualiscumque (in the nom., of — kind). ¹¹ non. ¹² dandum esse. ¹³ laborare. ¹⁴ ferre. ¹⁵ qui (in acc.). ¹⁶ moriendum esse. ¹⁷ post. ¹⁸ quoniam. ¹⁹ debere. ²⁰ officiosus. ²¹ infinitus. ²² res. ²³ fallere. ²⁴ ut (for — to). ²⁵ quam saepissime (as — possible). ²⁶ servare.

B. *The Subjunctive.*

(270. c.) The subjunctive is used to denote *dependence*, *indefiniteness* and *doubt*, where one considers something only as *possible*, or, at most, as *probable*, and leaves it undecided, whether it is *real* and *true*. Hence it is employed to express what is *conceived* in the mind, what is *fictitious*, to denote everything which one *wishes*, *admits* and *concedes*; whereas the indicative denotes what is *actual*, or what is considered as such.

The English often corresponds with the Latin, in the use of the modes, and often also differs. The greatest difference is in subordinate clauses, the least in principal clauses.

The subjunctive is therefore used especially :

(270. d.) (1) Where *may*, *can*, *might*, *could*, *would*, etc., occur in English; e. g. *It may be so!* *sit ita!* *I would come, if —, venirem si —.* Comp. § 232.

(2) The subjunctive is used in questions implying doubt respecting the propriety or certainty of an action ; e. g. *Why shall I not count myself* (n u m e r e m) ? *What shall or can I do* (f a c i a m) ? *Why shall I enumerate the great number of employments* (e n u m e r e m) ? *What could I do* (f a c e r e m) ? These questions are equivalent to, *There is no reason why I should not count myself. I do not know what I shall or can do*, etc.

(3) The present subjunctive often has the signification of an imperative ; then, in a sentence containing a prohibition, the word *not* is expressed by *ne* ; e. g. *Let every one learn to know his own mind* (n o s c a t) ; *learn to know thy own mind* (n o s c a s) ; *let every one beware of this fault* (c a v e a t) ; *let the youth not squander his patrimony* (n e f f u n d a t) ; *now let no inquiry be made* (n e h a b e a t u r) ; *let us go* (e a m u s) ; *let us follow nature* (s e q u a m u r).

(4) It stands in hypothetical sentences, in which a possible case is supposed. If this supposed case should happen or should have happened, then something else would happen or would have happened ; e. g. *If Croesus had been* (f u i s s e t) *happy, he would have continued* (p e r t u l i s s e t) *his happy life to the day of his death. If it were not so* (e s s e t) *I would not strive for* (h a u d n i t e r e r) *glory*.

(5) The Latin uses the subjunctive in stating the sentiments of another, when they are not given in the words of the speaker, but only in a narrative form, provided the sentence begins with a relative pronoun or a conjunction. Such a discourse is called *oblique, indirect, dependent discourse, oratio obliqua*. All kinds of subordinate clauses, therefore, which in *direct discourse* would have the indicative, require the subjunctive, whenever they are to be represented in *indirect discourse*. This will be treated more at length in its own section. Only a few examples are given here : *Sulla wrote to him, that he had done right in not sparing* (p e p c i s s e t) *any* ;—*that he should endeavor* (d a r e t o p e

ram) *to bring under his power (redigere t)* those also, who had (haberent) a camp in Megara. Scaptius said, that that field which he, when a soldier, had acquired (cepisset) by his strength, he would now also, when an old man, defend by his voice, the only means by which he was able (posset).

It is a peculiarity of Latin usage, of which examples are numerous in Cicero, that in causal sentences, formed with *quod*, because, and similar conjunctions, in which the thought or expressions of another are stated as the reason of what is contained in the principal sentence (*because he said, because he believed*), the verbs of thinking and speaking (*dicere, putare, etc.*) are put in the subjunctive, followed by an Acc. with the Inf. ; e. g. *I could not obtain from the Athenians the gift of a place of burial within the city, because they said they were prevented by religious scruples, quod religione se impediri dicebant; i. e. quod impedirentur (because they were prevented) ut dicebant.*

The two clauses, *quod impedirentur* and *ut dicebant*, are here blended into one, and *dicebant* itself takes the mode, which belongs usually to indirect assertions in a dependent causal sentence. *I perceive that your letter was too short, because you had supposed that the messenger himself would bring it, quod putas, when one would have expected, putaras.* The same construction occurs in relative sentences : *Verres named the slave, respecting whom he said, that he was the keeper of the flock, quem magistrum pecoris esse dicebat, instead of qui, ut dicebat, magister pecoris esset.*

Examples on §§ (270. c.) (270. d.)

Nothing can be so difficult, but that¹ it can be investigated. Let us enjoy the pleasures of life. Kings can retain² their kingdoms for themselves, the rich, their riches. Caesar believed, that it would not be expedient to wait till³ the forces⁴ of the enemy should be increased, and the cavalry should return⁵. Who indeed⁶ could justly⁷ blame⁸ me ? Alexander was troubled⁹ that¹⁰ a city stood¹¹ in his way. Since¹² we are at leisure¹³, let us discourse of civil law. I wish that you would define, what pleasure is. Let us strive¹⁴ that death may find as little as possible¹⁵, which it can destroy¹⁶. In this region, you can see many old men; and, if you were there, you would believe, that you were born in another century. May the gods preserve¹⁷ to you this joy and this glory. Plato recommends¹⁸, that we should consider¹⁹ those as our adversaries, who carried arms against us, not those, who would²⁰ defend²¹ the state. Even in prosperity, let us avoid pride²² and arrogance. It is foolish that²³ I should prescribe¹⁸ what you should do²⁴.

¹ quin (but that). ² habere. ³ dum. ⁴ copiae. ⁵ reverti. ⁶ tandem.

⁷ jure. ⁸ reprehendēre. ⁹ aegre ferre (active). ¹⁰ quod. ¹¹ obstare (stand in the way). ¹² quoniam. ¹³ vacuum esse. ¹⁴ niti. ¹⁵ quam paucissima. ¹⁶ abolēre. ¹⁷ servare. ¹⁸ praecipere. ¹⁹ existimare. ²⁰ velle. ²¹ tueri. ²² superbia. ²³ (acc. with inf.). ²⁴ agere.

(2) If you should perchance¹ find any one², who scorned to look³ upon the beauty of the world⁴, who would not be charmed⁵ by any odor, touch⁶ and taste⁷, and would shut⁸ his ears against every delight⁹, I should consider him a favorite¹⁰ of the gods. May this desert and rough¹¹ way be abandoned¹² by all. Let something be granted¹³ to youth, let not all pleasures be forbidden¹⁴, let not reason always be supreme¹⁵, let desire sometimes¹⁶ vanquish reason, provided¹⁷ moderation is observed¹⁸; let youth spare their own modesty¹⁹, not plunder²⁰ the property of another²¹, not squander²² their patrimony, frighten no one by violence, and be free²³ from crime²⁴. The Romans returned in sadness²⁵ to their camp: one would have thought²⁶ them vanquished. When the battle²⁷ was over, one could have seen how great boldness there had been in the army of Catiline. Then, one could have perceived²⁸ the Albani, now²⁹ joyful and now trembling³⁰.

¹ forte. ² quis. ³ oculis aspernari (scorn to look). ⁴ res (plural). ⁵ capere. ⁶ tactus. ⁷ sapor. ⁸ excludere. ⁹ suavitas. ¹⁰ deliciae. ¹¹ incultus. ¹² relinquere. ¹³ dare. ¹⁴ denegare. ¹⁵ superare (active). ¹⁶ aliquando. ¹⁷ dummodo. ¹⁸ tenere. ¹⁹ pudicitia. ²⁰ spoliare. ²¹ alienus (property of another). ²² effundere. ²³ carere. ²⁴ scelus. ²⁵ maestus (in sadness). ²⁶ credere. ²⁷ confecto proelio (when — over). ²⁸ animadvertisse. ²⁹ modo. ³⁰ pavidus.

Further use of the Subjunctive.

(270. e.) The subjunctive, in general, expresses dependence. It almost always depends on another sentence and supposes such a one. Hence, every sentence which depends upon another or is even only so considered, is expressed by the subjunctive; for whatever is dependent is so far not real. Therefore, when the subjunctive is used, the idea of the future, as yet uncertain with regard to the issue, is implied in it.

Purposes and designs, consequences and effects, properties and qualities, i. e. assertions that this or that is so, as well as limitations, in short, all cases of mere possibility are denoted

by the subjunctive. When such relations occur, the event is *dependent*, being an *effect* that has happened or should happen, from a preceding cause. The subjunctive, therefore, represents the action subject to a *certain condition*, and not as a *real and actual fact*.

Hence :

(270. f.) (1) Interrogative sentences with *whether*, *who*, *when*, *where*, *how*, *why* and the like, when they do not ask definitely, but are *dependent* upon another sentence, are expressed by the subjunctive. Such interrogative sentences are called *indefinite, indirect*. Such are, e. g. *I know not where thou art* (*hast been, will be*), *ubi sis* (*fueris, futurus sis*). *Write me soon, how you live* (*vivatis*), and *what is doing* (*agatur*) *in the city*. *Remember what pleasant days we have spent* (*vixerimus*). *Hear, why I have done* (*fecerim*) *this*. *Say, when you go thither, eas et proficiscere*.

More will be said of such interrogative sentences, in the section on *indirect questions*, § 319.

(270. g.) (2) The subjunctive stands in sentences, which express what is *general* or *universal*, and do not speak of *definite, real persons and actual facts*. It stands too in sentences which contain actions that are *repeated* and are considered possible at all times. Yet this mode does not, in such cases, stand in principal, but only in subordinate sentences, which begin with a conjunction or a relative word, (e. g. *qui*, *qualis*, *quantus*); e. g. *You can dismiss pain when you wish* (*quam velis*). *Use this good, while it is present* (*dum adsit*), and *do not long for it, when it is absent* (*dum absit*). *Freedom consists in living as you wish* (*ut velis*). *You must make, to those whom you unwillingly injure* (*offenda s*), *every apology which you can* (*possis*); *tell them why that which you did* (*feceris*) *was* (*fuerit*) *necessary*; and *why you could not* (*potueris*) *have done otherwise*. *Do wrong to no one, although wrong has been done* (*il-*

lata sit) to you. If, on the contrary, the last sentence referred to an actual instance of wrong, that had been done, and the meaning was: *Do this man no wrong, although wrong has been done to you*, it must be written: *illata est.* *Do not believe, that all men whom you have conquered* (*viceris*), *are your enemies*; but: *Do not believe that these men whom you have conquered* (*vici sunt*), *are your enemies.* *What desires can such a one, as has always dwelt* (*habitaverit*) *in the country have?* but: *What desires will this man have, who has always dwelt* (*habitavit*)? The indefinite *you, one, a man, a woman* belong, for the most part, to *universal or general statements*; hence in them the subjunctive is generally used.

(270. h.) (3) In stating the thought or action of another, the subjunctive must also be used in all subordinate sentences, which show the *intention* or *reason* of the one thinking or acting, given by himself, why he does or thinks something; in short, the subjunctive is used, when what is said, is the *sentiment* of the person, whose thought or action is narrated. When, on the contrary, the narrator or writer makes additions of his own, or makes the thought and reason of another his own, the indicative must be used. Therefore, the mode of the verb depends alone upon the thought and will of the writer, whether he wishes to make an idea depend upon his own conception, or upon that of another.

The following examples will explain this usage: *Old age seems to many sad, because it withdraws them from the direction of business, and renders the body weak*, *quod a vocet et faciat.* If it had been said, *quod a vocat et facit*, this would be my opinion also, and not merely the opinion of the many. *No one abhors pleasure itself, because it is pleasure*, *quia voluptas sit.* *Tisagoras spoke for his brother Miltiades, because he could not*, *quoniam non posset.* The last, therefore, are the words of Tisagoras, containing the reason why he, and not Miltiades, spoke. *Darius placed guards over the bridge, as long as he was absent*, *dum ipse absaset.* The last clause is the sentiment of Darius, and not the idea of the writer narrating it,—*they should be, as long as he was absent, until he had returned.*

But when it is said, e. g. *He charged it upon him as a crime, that he had banished his son Titus, who was afterwards called Torquatus*, then the last clause is expressed by *qui est appellatus*; for it

does not belong to the statement of the complainant, but is an observation of Cicero, the narrator. *Know, that what we have done for the good of our country, is praised by the whole world*, quae nos pro salute patriae gessimus, not gesserimus, because otherwise Cicero would have stated doubtfully this indisputable fact to which he refers.

Remark. It is generally given as a rule, that, in sentences containing the accusative and the infinitive or conjunctions which signify *that*, and in interrogative sentences, all the subordinate clauses belonging to them, must be put in the subjunctive. This is, to be sure, the case in most instances, because these sentences are intimately connected with such other sentences, or depend upon them. But this requires great caution, as the foregoing and many other examples prove; because the subjunctive can be used, only when there is a real dependence on some other sentence. In respect to *qui*, *quae*, *quod* and other relatives, in which there is often concealed a *purpose*, *consequence* or *cause*, and which then take the subjunctive, as well as in respect to the conjunctions, which are either always, or in certain significations, followed by the subjunctive, see the next following sections.

Examples on §§ (270. e.)—(270. h.)

I do not know why¹ you are afraid. No one knows whether² this is true. Write me as soon³ as possible, how⁴ you are⁵. You do not see, in how great⁶ danger you are. Remember what letters I have written to you. I will write to you what I missed⁷ in your letter. I know⁸ well, how⁹ impudently I act¹⁰. Thou wilt learn¹¹ from Pollio, what is doing¹² here at Rome. It is not easy to write, how¹³ things are at present. I know not what resolution our Pompey has adopted, or adopts. I do not believe, that Marcellus was brave at Clastidium, because¹⁴ he had been irritated. Let us see, how powerful¹⁵ are the remedies, which are applied¹⁶ by philosophy to the diseases of the soul. We must¹⁷ strive¹⁸ to¹⁹ obtain²⁰ those blessings which have been granted²¹ to us. Plato says, that those, who contended with one another, in* regard to which of two governed²² the state best, acted in the same manner²³, as²⁴ if pilots should dispute²⁵ which of them steered²⁶ best²⁷. To restrain²⁸ your feelings and language²⁹, when you are angry, is the mark of no ordinary mind³⁰. Nothing is more shameful, than to wage war with those, with whom one has lived³¹ on intimate³² terms. Panaetius praises the younger³³ Scipio, because³⁴ he was abstemious. It is not contrary to nature, if one can, to plunder³⁵ those, whom it is honorable³⁶ to kill. What is more foolish, than to fear, that³⁷

you cannot longer³⁸ do that, which you do willingly. I believe, that such a man will do nothing, except³⁹ what is useful⁴⁰ to him⁴¹. It often happens, that he, who has been recommended to some one, values⁴² him more, to whom he has been recommended, than him, by whom he has been recommended. What is freedom? Power⁴³ to live as you wish. It is not enough to have virtue, as it were⁴⁴, some art, unless you use it. Can we indeed⁴⁵ consider such a one, in any respect⁴⁶, a commander, in whose army the office of centurion⁴⁷ is bought⁴⁸, and has been bought? It is difficult to remember⁴⁹ what one has heard⁵⁰, unless he makes use of it.

¹ cur. ² num. ³ quam primum. ⁴ quid. ⁵ agere. ⁶ quantus. ⁷ desiderare. ⁸ non ignorare (to know well). ⁹ quam. ¹⁰ facere. ¹¹ accipere. ¹² agi. ¹³ ut. ¹⁴ quia (comp. § 241). ¹⁵ quantus. ¹⁶ adhibere alicui. ¹⁷ (verbal adjective). ¹⁸ niti. ¹⁹ ut. ²⁰ conséqui. ²¹ dare. ²² (in regard to is omitted in Lat.). ²³ administrare. ²⁴ similiter. ²⁵ ut. ²⁶ certare (imperf. subj., for they did not contend with one another). ²⁷ gubernare. ²⁸ potissimum. ²⁹ moderari. ³⁰ oratio. ³¹ ingenium. (2d person). ³² familiariter (on — terms). ³³ minor. ³⁴ quod. ³⁵ spoliare. ³⁶ honestus. ³⁷ ut. ³⁸ diu. ³⁹ nisi. ⁴⁰ expedire. ⁴¹ ipse. ⁴² facere. ⁴³ potestas. ⁴⁴ quasi (as it were). ⁴⁵ num. ⁴⁶ aliquo in numero putare (to consider in any respect). ⁴⁷ centuriatus (office of centurion). ⁴⁸ venire. ⁴⁹ memoria tene-
re. ⁵⁰ accipere.

Conjunctions which influence the Modes of Verbs.

(270. i.) Conjunctions connect two events with each other, and hence the verb is intimately connected with them.

Every conjunction, whatever it be, is followed by the subjunctive, when the sentence denotes what is *general*, *uncertain*, *doubtful*, or when a property or quality of a subject, is assumed as merely possible. Hence, where something indefinite is predicated of the subject, no Latin conjunction is followed by the indicative, but by the subjunctive. Therefore, when conjunctions, which at other times have the indicative, are followed by the subjunctive, the event is thereby considered only as a possible one, and the words expressive of doubt, *perhaps*, *one would believe*, and the auxiliary verbs, *may*, *can* and the like, must be supplied in the mind. It cannot, therefore, be said with truth, that a conjunction governs a

definite mode. The thought contained in each sentence determines the mode. Yet some conjunctions, in a particular signification, take only the subjunctive.

(270. j.) The indicative with a conjunction indicates, that the speaker definitely attributes to the subject the predicate contained in the verb. Therefore, conjunctions, which signify *because*, and denote known, certain and definite causes, e. g. *quia, quoniam, quod, quando* and others; moreover, all *restricting* conjunctions, which signify *although*, e. g. *etsi, quamquam*, and all particles of time, e. g. *postquam, simul, ubi, quem*, etc. take the indicative.

The subjunctive, on the contrary, shows that the predicate of the subject is merely conceived of, or is yet to be accomplished. Therefore, conjunctions signifying *that, in order that*, take the subjunctive, because the result of the action is uncertain, inasmuch as *purpose, consequence, effect, wish and command* are just as uncertain as the future.

But since some conjunctions have different significations, and accordingly admit and require different modes, and many also do not fall within the given rules, they may be divided into three classes : (1) Such as are followed by the indicative ; (2) Such as are followed by the subjunctive ; and (3) Such as, according to their different significations, and according to the idea contained in the sentence, admit both modes.

I. Conjunctions with the Indicative.

271. The conjunctions here following take the indicative in every sentence which expresses a *definite* and *certain* opinion or thought. All the instances before mentioned, where the subjunctive is used, § (270. c.)—(270. h.), here form a necessary exception. These conjunctions are: *quamquam, etsi, tametsi, postquam, ubi, simul, simulac, ut, quando, quando cumque, quandoquidem, quandoque, quatenus, quia, quoniam, quod, si, nisi, ni, sin, sive, etiamsi*.

272. (1) *Etsi, quanquam, tametsi, (tamen et si)*, *although*. When the speaker expresses and states something *definite, actual* and *certain*, or declares his own sentiment, the indicative alone is used; e. g. *Although he can, quanquam potest; although this can be censured in many ways, etsi potest; although Hannibal saw, etsi videbat; although nothing was more to be desired by me, tametsi fuit.*

The subjunctive follows these particles, when something *indefinite, general, possible* or *doubtful* is said, or in the construction of the *ratio obliqua*; see § (270. d. 5). The present is used when the case is merely represented as possible, either without reference to a definite time, or with a reference to the present of the speaker; the imperfect. or pluperf. either with reference to the past, or to denote something not actual but supposed; e. g. *Although they have some misfortunes, quanquam sint in quibusdam malis. Epicurus taught, that all feelings of pleasure, although they were judged of by the sensation of the body (quanquam iudicentur), nevertheless belonged to the body. Some do not venture to express their opinion, although it may be (etsi sit) the best even. Though you had taken nothing else from Sulla but the consulship, yet you ought to have been content with that, (etsi abstulissetis).* So especially *quamquam* in intermediate clauses, when something is only conjectured; e. g. *Although this may be less wonderful, (quanquam — mirum sit) to others. Comp. §§ (270. c.) — (270. h.)*

273. (2) *Postquam, poste aquam, ubi (primum), simul, simulac (primum), simulatque, ut, after that, when, as soon as, as.* All these particles of time take the indicative only, when events that have really occurred, and not such as are merely conceived, are spoken of. The most usual tense, when a past event, or rather an event past prior to some other past, is denoted, is the perfect. Instead of this, however, the historic present is often used, but not the imperfect. The pluperfect is generally used, only when still another designation of time precedes, or when it forms a subordinate clause, or when the principal clause has an imperfect, and the other denotes a repeated past action; e. g. *As soon as this happened (had happened) (quod ubi accidit), the barbarians fled. When (ut) Hannibal had returned (redit) to Carthage, he was made praetor, after*

that (postquam) he had been (fuerat) king in his twenty-second year. After (posteaquam) the same had come (venit) to the Alps, the inhabitants prevented his passage. The fifteenth day after he died (postquam mortuus erat), I received the account. Every animal, as soon as it is born, simul ut ortum est. As soon as Metellus had placed his foot over the threshold (simul ac pedem—extulerat), he began to conquer (superabat).

The conjunctions *ut*, *ubi*, *postquam*, are followed by the imperfect, only when an event is cotemporary with the event of the principal clause, and *simul* and its compounds, by the future and the future-perfect, when the events are future; e. g. *When (ut) all seas and lands were open (patebant), fortune began to frown. As soon as there shall be anything certain (simul quid certi erit). As soon as I have seen him (similatque eum video). When (ut) Hortensius was being brought back (reducetur) to his house, Curio met him.*

So, *postridie, quam, the day after*, is used with the perfect indicative for *postquam*, e. g. *The day after I left you, postridie, quam a vobis discessi.*

It is further to be remarked, that when Cicero would make the priority of one past action to another prominent, he does not use *postquam*, but *quum* with the pluperfect. *Postquam* is therefore employed but seldom.

These particles of time can have the subjunctive, only under the conditions stated above, §§ (270. c.)—(270. h.) *Ubi* especially, often takes the imperf. or pluperf. subj. to denote actions frequently repeated in the past; e. g. *whenever the tribunes aided the lower classes, (ubi essent auxilio).*

274. (3) *Quando, because, since; quando cum que, whenever, as often as; quandoquidem, seeing that; quandoque, whenever, because.* These particles take the indicative in each of their significations, when the sentence contains a definite assertion; e. g. *Since, therefore, there is in every virtue, a certain anxiety, quando in est; since you have given me a noble proof of your judgment, quandoquidem dedisti; because you fought contrary to our commands against the enemy, quandoque pugnasti; as often as*

(quandocumque) *any opportunity had presented itself* (obtulerat), *the Romans broke forth from their rampart* (erumpabant).

It is now doubted, whether, in the classical writers, *quando* has the signification of *because* and *since*, inasmuch as in all those places, where it occurs in this sense, the reading should be *quoniam*, as is very often the case in Cicero. *Quando* has only the interrogative sense of *when?* and in direct questions takes the indicative, but in indirect, the subjunctive.

The subjunctive is used with these particles, when one of the cases mentioned under §§ (270. c.)—(270. h.) occurs.

275. (4) *Quatēnus*, *how far, so far as, since, as soon as*, when there is a *definite* assertion, takes the indicative only, and the subjunctive, only when the cases mentioned under §§ (270. c.)—(270. h.) require it; e. g. *So far as he spake of religious scruples, he was assented to*, *quatēnus dicebat*. *Since long life is denied to us*, *quatēnus negatur*; *as soon as I found an arbiter of this contention*, *quatēnus inveni*; but in indirect discourse, the subjunctive is used; e. g. *Pliny says, that, since long life is denied to us, we must leave behind us something immortal*, *quatēnus negetur*.

276. (5) *Quia*, *because*; *quoniam*, *since*. These two conjunctions also have the indicative, at least in Cicero, in all cases, when the sentence contains a *definite* assertion and the reason of the speaker himself, and does not depend upon another sentence. If the sentence is dependent, the subjunctive is used [comp. §§ (270. c.)—(270. h.)] as it is also with *non quia*, with or without *sed quod* following, because that gives only a conceived reason, and not the true one, and therefore requires the subjunctive; e. g. *Because we are inclined to these passions, quia sumus*; *since, on the two previous days, death and pain were treated of*, *quoniam dictum est*; *I believe that Marcellus was brave at Clastidium, not because he was angry*, *non quia fuērit iratus*. The subjunctive is here used to denote the conceived reason, and not the true one, which follows in the indicative.

277. (6) *Quod*, *that, because*; *propterēa quod*, *on*

this account that, because; praeterquam quod, besides that. These take the indicative, when the speaker expresses something definite, as his own reason, and does not utter the sentiment or words of another. But in the cases mentioned under §§ (270. c.)—(270. h.), the Subj. is used, and also with *non* (*eo, ideo, idcirco,*) *quod*, followed by *sed quod*, because these also denote only an imaginary, and not the true reason, and are the same as, *non* (*eo*) *quo, not that*, which also takes the subjunctive; e. g. *Because Epicurus was (fuit) an honest man, and many Epicureans have been (fuerunt) faithful in their friendship, and still are (sunt).* *It is pleasing to me, that you still long for us* (*quod — requiris*). *You write to me, you have only one comfort, that you possess my books instead of me* (*quod — tenas*). *Combatants sigh, not that they feel pain* (*non quod doleant*), *but because —;* the second *quod* after *sed* can also be omitted. When I say, *Queritur quod humana vita brevis est*, I also admit the shortness of human life, as a truth; but when I say, *Queritur quod vita humana brevis sit*, I only quote the complaint of another, without myself admitting this, as a truth. In sentences containing an indefinite general statement, the subjunctive is also always used after *est*, *non est*, *nihil est*, *quid est*, which can be translated, *there is a reason, no reason, why; it is necessary, that; it is not necessary, that; why?* e. g. *Why do you weep? quid est, quod fleas? You need not weep, non est, quod fleas. It is not necessary for you to hasten, non (nihil) est, quod festines.* Here the subjunctive expresses the idea of *necessity or possibility*, which would not be contained in the indicative. Comp. also § 303. Respecting *quod, so far as, as far as*, with the subjunctive, see § 314.

278. (7) *S i, if; n i si, n i, unless, if not; s i n, but if; si quidem, if indeed; quod s i, if then, if therefore, but if; s i v e — s i v e, whether—or, if either—or; si forte, if perhaps; n i si forte, unless perhaps; etiam s i, although,*

even if. When the sentences with these particles contain *certain* and *definite* conditions and refer to something actual, and when the assertion in English is *definite, certain* and *positive*, the indicative is used; e. g. *If nature prescribes this, si praescribit; if then this is so, quod si ita est; limbs are amputated, if they have begun to be without blood, and, as it were, without breath, si cooperunt; if then nothing is so contrary to nature as baseness, quod si nihil est; he will desert you, unless you do so, nisi ita facies; even if perhaps there is no means there, etiam si res forte non suppedit.*

279. The conjunction *nisi forte*, when it implies mockery or irony in an *actual matter of fact*, always takes the indicative; e. g. *Unless it be that youth should long for boyhood, nisi forte adolescentes pueritiam debent requiri. Unless it be, that thy Athens could have retained an ever-enduring olive tree, nisi forte Athenae tuae potuerunt.*

280. So *sive—sive* take the indicative in all cases, unless there are other circumstances, which require the subjunctive; e. g. *Whether this is so, or in that manner, hoc sive sic est, sive illo modo; be anxious for this, whether you have some hope, or despair, sive habebis aliquam spem, sive desperas; whether the bed is soft or hard, cubile seu molle seu durum est; whether they remained or followed, sive manserunt sive secuti sunt.*

On the contrary, the subjunctive is used according to the conditions stated §§ (270. c.)—270. h.); especially therefore with what is only *possible* and *conceived*, consequently in sentences containing general statements (see § 270. g.), or when the *reasons, sentiments and words* of another are expressed; e. g. *Some may censure this, if it is done with too little exertion, si remissius agatur. If any one should happen to wonder, si quis forte miretur. The wise man does not refuse to die, if that be better, si ita melius sit. It is useless to learn an art, unless you practise it, nisi exerceas, not exercetas. It is wise to accommodate yourself to the time, if you are compelled by necessity, si necessitate cogare (cogaris). Only one thing must be observed, that the burial relates only to the body, whether the soul dies, or continues to live, sive occiderit sive vigeat (oratio obliqua).* The following clauses are different; *If we are angry, denoting anger really felt, and if we are angry, denoting only supposed anger.* The former is expressed by *si irascimur*, the latter by *si irascamur.*

So also *etiamsi*, when it signifies, *even if, supposing also, although*, takes the subjunctive; e. g. *Even if it in no respect concerns them, etiamsi eorum nihil intersit*. Some believe, that this conjunction takes the subjunctive only, and that it should be so written in all cases. But yet there must properly be exceptions, where actual facts are spoken of, and where the thought is, *indeed this is really so, but nevertheless*; e. g. *Although the Cappadocians are our friends, nevertheless they do not dare*, Cappadœces, etiamsi sunt. *Although the truth is not pleasing, yet it is grateful to me*, etiamsi jucunda non est.

Examples on §§ (270. i.)—280.

(1) Alexander was displeased¹, that² a city was in his way³. After⁴ Gracchus had returned to Rome, he commanded that this exploit⁵ should be painted⁶ in the temple of Freedom. When⁷ a certain Fabius perceived⁸ Varus, he thrust⁹ his sword¹⁰ at his naked¹¹ shoulder. Since¹² we are at leisure¹³, we will discourse at length¹⁴ concerning civil law. If a happy life can be lost¹⁵, it cannot be happy. It is certain, that¹⁶ there is nowhere* a place for virtue and friendship, if everything is to be referred¹⁷ to pleasure. Tanaquil thinks¹⁸ of another means¹⁹, if hope should fail²⁰ her. As soon as²¹ Caesar had come to Brundusium, he made²² an address before²³ the soldiers. Say this in the court²⁴, or, if you fear the assembly²⁵, say it in the senate; you will do it, unless it is a disgraceful²⁶ report. Although²⁷ I am sufficiently mild²⁸, yet sometimes I am wont to be a little angry²⁹. As soon as³⁰ the Dictator had seen³¹ this, he immediately³² sent forth his horsemen against the enemy. Why³³ do we blame this orator? You need³⁴ not envy the rich. Although³⁵ old age³⁶ is deprived of immoderate feasts³⁷, yet it can find pleasure in moderate³⁸ entertainments³⁹. So far as⁴⁰ I know, there are no holidays this month.

¹ aegre ferre. ² quod. ³ obstare (to be in the way). ⁴ postquam. ⁵ res gesta. ⁶ depingere. ⁷ ubi. ⁸ conspicere. ⁹ appetere. ¹⁰ (ablative). ¹¹ aperitus. ¹² quoniam. ¹³ vacuus esse. ¹⁴ copiose. ¹⁵ amitti. ¹⁶ (acc. with inf.). * neque usquam. ¹⁷ referre. ¹⁸ moliri. ¹⁹ praesidium. ²⁰ destituere. ²¹ ut (as — as). ²² concionari (to make an address). ²³ apud. ²⁴ judicium. ²⁵ corona. ²⁶ turpis. ²⁷ etsi. ²⁸ clemens. ²⁹ subirasci (to be a little angry). ³⁰ simul (as — as). ³¹ conspicere. ³² emittere. ³³ quid est, quod. ³⁴ non (nihil) est, quod, (there is no need). ³⁵ quanquam. ³⁶ senectus. ³⁷ epulae. ³⁸ immoderatus. ³⁹ convivium. ⁴⁰ quod (so — as).

(2) The slaughter¹ was small, because² the enemy were few. If there should be a mistake in this, that³ the ancient annals⁴ represent⁵ Cossus in the ninth year after, as Consul, it is a common mistake. It is the duty of the judge, in

law-suits, always to follow truth—the duty of the advocate⁶ sometimes also to defend what is probable⁷, even if⁸ it has little truth. Beneficence⁹ ought¹⁰ to incline¹¹ towards¹² the unfortunate¹³, unless perhaps they deserve misfortune¹⁴. Demetrius Phalerius blamed¹⁵ Pericles, because¹⁶ he had spent¹⁷ so much¹⁸ money upon¹⁹ the splendid²⁰ Propylaea. Aratus thought²¹ it unjust²², that²³ the possessions of fifty years should be changed²⁴, because²⁵, in so long a period²⁶, many things were justly²⁷ possessed²⁸ by inheritance²⁹, by purchase³⁰ and by gifts³¹. The eleventh day after I left³² you, I wrote this letter. After the day of the truce³³ had passed³⁴, the Persian marched³⁵ to Caria, because most of his possessions were there. There is no reason, that³⁶ we should be angry with those who do not favor us. Why³⁷ do my parents write to me so seldom? Animals, whether³⁸ they thrust³⁹ with their horns, or bite with their teeth, or defend⁴⁰ themselves in any other manner, all have something⁴¹ by which they protect⁴² themselves.

¹ caedes. ² quia (see also § 145, 6). ³ quod. ⁴ annalis. ⁵ habere. ⁶ patrōnus. ⁷ verisimile. ⁸ etiamsi. ⁹ benignitas. ¹⁰ debere. ¹¹ propensus esse. ¹² in. ¹³ calamitōsus. ¹⁴ calamitas. ¹⁵ vituperare. ¹⁶ quod. ¹⁷ concidere. ¹⁸ tantus. ¹⁹ in. ²⁰ praeclarus. ²¹ putare. ²² iniquus. ²³ (acc. with inf.). ²⁴ movere. ²⁵ propterea quod. ²⁶ spatium. ²⁷ haud injuria. ²⁸ tenere. ²⁹ hereditas. ³⁰ emptio. ³¹ donum. ³² discedere. ³³ indutiae. ³⁴ praeterire. ³⁵ proficiisci. ³⁶ non (nihil) est, quod (there — that). ³⁷ quid est, quod. ³⁸ sive. ³⁹ petere. ⁴⁰ tutari. ⁴¹ (omitted in Latin). ⁴² tutus reddere.

II. Conjunctions with the Subjunctive.

281. The following conjunctions take the subjunctive in every sentence, whatever be its connection with other sentences. These conjunctions are: *ne, quo, quominus, utinam, o si, licet, velut, quasi, perinde (proinde) ac si or quasi, utsi, tamquam, quamvis, quantumvis.*

(1) *Ne, that not, in order that not, not to, from, and with verbs of fearing, that; e. g. I request you, not to do anything unwillingly on my account, ne quid facias; you fear that you will lose some of your goods, ne quid deperdas.*

Respecting the interrogative *ne*, see interrogative words.

282. (2) *Quo, in order that, that thereby, in order that the;*

non quo, *not that, not as if*; quominus, *that not, from*; e. g. *Give him something, in order that he may be the more zealous, quo sit studiosior. Not that I have practised speaking, non quo exerceūrim. Nothing prevents us from being able to do this, quominus possimus.*

The opposite of non quo is non quin or non quo non, *not but that, not that — not, not as if — not*. Comp. § 287.

(3) Utinam and o si, *O that, would to God that*; e. g. *O that this also were in my power! utinam esset!*

(4) Licet, *though, although*; e. g. *Although my body was absent, yet my spirit was present, licet abesset.*

283. (5) Velut (si), quasi, utsi, perinde (proinde) ac si or quasi and tanquam (si), *just as if*; e. g. *The Greeks call rage, melancholy, as if the mind were excited by black gall alone, quasi moveatur.*

(6) Quamvis, quamvis licet and quantumvis, *however, how much soever*; e. g. *However wise you may be, quamvis sis; however acute he may have been, quamvis fuerit.*

The poets and writers subsequent to the classical age, use *quamvis* for *quamquam*, and join it with the indicative. This usage should not be imitated.

III. Conjunctions which are sometimes followed by the Indicative and sometimes by the Subjunctive.

284. A third class of conjunctions take a different mode, either according to their different significations, or according to the different tenses, with which they are connected in the sentence. Yet, what was stated above respecting those followed by the indicative, is true here also, viz., that all which take the indicative, can, under the circumstances mentioned §§ (270. c.)—(270. h.), take the subjunctive also. The conjunctions which belong here are: *ut, prout, quin, quem (cum), dum, modo, dummodo, donec, quoad, antequam and priusquam.*

285. (1) *Ut, uti.* This, according to its different significations, takes a different mode :

(a) *Ut, uti, as, how, when; prout, as, according as,* take the indicative, when the statement of the speaker is *definite*, and they mark only an intermediate clause, or when they are used in making comparisons, followed by *sic, ita*, or a similar word; e. g. *As we seek (appetimus) the blessings of nature, so we avoid the evils of nature.* *The passions are, as we have before said (diximus), the boisterous motions of the soul.* *As he loved letters, prout litteras amabat.* So even *ut uti, however;* e. g. *However things may be or are, ut ut se res habent, not habeant;* and *ut-cumque, however;* e. g. *However necessary it may be, utcumque necesse est, not sit.* See § (270. b.).

But when the word *ut* depends upon another word, e. g. *Thou dost not know how (ut) this has happened*, see § (270. f.); or when the sentence with the conjunction *ut* expresses general facts, or belongs to the discourse of another, and contains his sentiments and words; or when the speaker expresses *doubt* and *uncertainty*, the subjunctive is used; e. g. *You see how wild beasts are carried away (ut rapiantur) by blind impulse.* *Pythagoras said, as some were there striving for glory, others were influenced by a desire of buying or selling, so —, ut illuc alii petarent, alii ducerentur —.*

For *ut* signifying *when, as soon as*, see above § 273. 2.

286. (b) *Uti, that, in order that, in order to, to, although, that not, supposing that,* always takes the subjunctive; e. g. *To pass over that, ut illa praetererem;* *that it may be at once evident, ut facile appareat;* *supposing that he is not considered a scholar, ut non putetur.*

287. (2) *Quin.* This also, according to its different significations, takes a different mode :

(a) *Quin, why not? indeed, truly,* takes the indicative. Here it always stands in independent sentences; e. g. *Why do you not keep silence? quin taces?* *Truly, I desire myself to depart from this place, quin cupio.*

(b) *Quin, that not, who or which not, that, to, without; non quin, not but that, not that — not,* always takes the subjunctive; e. g. *There is no one who does not (but that) ap-*

prove and praise this frame of mind, quin probet atque laudet. I doubt not, that you know, quin sciatis. Do not hesitate to intrust everything to him alone, quin credatis. The mother of Timoleon never saw him after his brother's death, without calling him a murderer, quin compellaret.

288. (3) *Quum* or *cum*. These have different modes, according as they express the idea of *cause* or *time*. The following should be noticed :

(a) When *quum* signifies *since, as*, and denotes the *ground or cause* from which something as a consequence or effect proceeds, it takes the subjunctive ; e. g. *Since this is so, quod (quae) quum ita sit (sint.) Since swarms of bees are (sunt) naturally social, they build cells. Since the poets have shown (prae se tulerint) great learning and wisdom, they ought to be heard and read.*

But when *quum* signifies merely *by*, and the verb is rendered by a participial noun, or by *in this that, in that, that, when, or since*, followed by *thereby* in the principal clause, where it is equivalent to *quod* or *ex eo quod*, and generally marks an explanatory subordinate clause, which defines more accurately what stands in the principal clause, it takes the indicative, and when the actions are past, the indicative of the perfect, except when there is an imperfect in the principal clause ; e. g. *You do well in that (that) you remember these (memoriantes). The senate has made known its opinion, in that, (quum) it decreed (decrevit) or by decreeing a reward to the informer, (since the senate has decreed — it has thereby —). The announcement was made by this, that the arms resounded, or by the resounding of, etc., quum arma sonuerunt. Epicurus has deprived men of their belief in the gods, by depriving (quum — sustulit) the gods of power and benevolence. I believed (putabam) that injustice was done to me, in that (when) I was asked (quum rogabatur).* Comp. § (251. e.), 3.

289. (b) When *quum* signifies *though, although*, it takes

the subjunctive; e. g. *Although this is so, yet great eloquence must be employed, quae cum ita sint, tamen —. Although nature shows (declaret) by so many signs, what she wishes.*

Quum, *although*, with the subjunctive, often introduces a sentence, which is followed by another connected with it.

The first sentence contains either the *cause* of the following, or a *general, comprehensive thought*; the second, a *limited one*, often *expressed* in the former, but made more *prominent* in the latter. Instead of uniting both sentences with *quum — tum* and the indicative, the first, in order to render the discourse periodic, is begun with *quum* and the subjunctive; then follows the second with *tum* and the indicative, to which the strengthening *tamen* is often joined; e. g. *Although friendship contains so many and so great advantages, yet it really excels all in this —, quum amicitia contineat, tum illa praestat. Although there are so many subjects imperfectly explained in philosophy, yet this is very difficult, quum multae res — sint, tum haec est perdifficilis. Although Sisenna's history surpasses all former ones, yet it shows its defects, quum vincat, tum indicat tamen —.* The common *quum — tum* with two indicatives, by its single and only copulative sentences, has nothing of the periodic structure, and is hence least of all adapted to the beginning of a speech. When the subjunctive is used, both sentences must also have their separate verbs.

290. (c) But when *quum* signifies *when, then* being implied in the corresponding member of the sentence, or *as often as*, where an action is *repeated*, and there is throughout a reference to time only, the indicative is used, if the assertion is *definite*, and something actual is spoken of; e. g. *When (quum) we are writing (scribimus), (then) we are delighted. When I have laid down (posui) the book, all that approbation vanishes. When Dionysius had shut (clauserat) the door of his chamber, he removed (detor-quebat) a little bridge. So when some definite time is*

denoted, followed by *since*; e. g. *It is already some years, since I chose you two*, quum vos duo d e l e g i. In indirect narrative discourse, the subjunctive is used even here; e. g. *It is therefore evident, that grief begins, when we imagine it*, — quum nobis visum sit. Or when it is said, *When at some time you consider (c o n s i d e r e s) you may indeed find (r e p e r i a s)*.

In the sentences just mentioned, where the time since which anything was done, is *definitely* stated, e. g. *It is some (two) years since*, the next verb is put only in the perfect indicative, as the preceding *delegi*, not *deligebam*; but in the present, where something happens *since*; e. g. *It is now nearly four hundred years, since this was approved*, quum hoc probatur. The use of *quod* for *quum* is subsequent to the classical period.

291. (d) When *quum* signifies *when*, and with a completed action, *after, after that*, then with a *cotemporary* action, it takes an imperfect, and with a *prior*, a pluperfect.

(α) Here the indicative is used, if the time of the action corresponds wholly with that of the principal clause, where we supply in thought *at the time when*, and where, in the principal clause, the imperfect or pluperfect is mostly employed; e. g. *When I was writing (quum scribem) this letter, everything was (erant) in expectation. The Decii saw (videbant) the gleaming swords of the enemy, when they were rushing upon (quum irruebant) their troops.* In both these sentences the actions are wholly cotemporary. *That state did not then exist (erat), when the national custom had passed away (occiderat).* Here the principal clause is vividly represented as continuing in past time, and therefore stands in the imperfect. *You had raised (attuleras) not a little expectation, when you had written (quum scripseras).* In such a case, the subjunctive is seldom used.

292. (β) The subjunctive is used, when the principal clause is in the perfect or historical present, and consequently the introductory clause contains an event, *during* or *after* which, another took place; e. g. *When you were (es) 23*

at Athens, you were (fuisti) often in the schools of the philosophers. When Marius was being cut (secatur), he forbid it (vetuit). After Dionysius had supped (cenavisset), he said (dixit). In many such sentences, there is not merely the relation of time, but also an idea of the *ground or cause* by which the principal event, as the effect, took place. Hence the subjunctive. Often with the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive, *quum* denotes a frequently repeated action, and may be translated *as often as, whenever*; e. g. *As often as or whenever it was necessary (essem) to raise a loan, he always interposed (interposuit); whenever he had come (venisset) into a circle — he never departed (discessit)*.

Remark. *Quum* with the indicative of the perfect, generally occurs only in four cases: (1) When the sentence with *when* is properly the principal sentence; e. g. *Scarcely had the war terminated, when the Carthaginians fell upon the Spaniards, quam impetum fecerunt, not faciebant, nor facerent.* The first sentence usually begins with *scarcely, already, just, only* (*tantum quod, commodum*). Comp. § 239. (2) When the sentence with *quum* points out still more definitely a time already specified, and is placed after the principal clause without another subsequent clause following; e. g. *At the close of the Peloponnesian war, Conon was commander, when (i. e. at the time when) the Athenians were conquered at Egos Potamos, quum — de vici sunt.* (3) When some accompanying circumstance is stated, so that the sentence might be continued equally well with *and* or *but*, since it also contains a principal clause; e. g. *The Lacedemonians never recovered (refecerunt) after this battle, when (but, although, and) in the mean time Agesilaus did not cease to succor his country, quum — non destituit.* (4) When *quum* signifies *by this that, in this that*. Comp. § 288. (5) With *quum primum*, *as soon as*, where the principal event is considered as occurring immediately after the first, as is the case with *postquam, ut, ubi, simulac*; e. g. *As soon as I had come to Rome (quum primum Romam veni), I hastened to my brother.*

293. (4) *Dum* also, according to its different significations, takes a different mode:

(a) *Dum, while, as long as*, takes the indicative, when the speaker states something *definitely* and *certainly*; e. g. *While these things are going on (dum geruntur) at Rome, the messengers came from Ardea. As long as the Parthians seemed (dum videbantur) to threaten, I had resolved to remain in the province. As long as ambition held*

me in chains (tenebat), I strove for the favor of the people. But when a relation of cause exists between the clause with *dum* and the principal clause, the subjunctive is used; e. g. *The enemy unmoved, while (since) their line was extended (porrigebatur) through the woods —.* So also in the oratio obliqua § (270. h.) the subjunctive should be used.

294. It is to be noticed here, that *dum* in the sense of *while* takes, in almost all cases, only the present, when another action occurs, which does not wholly correspond in time with this continuing action, and therefore denotes only like time, not a like duration of time; e. g. *While each one murmurs (fremunt) for himself, the voice of Appius was heard (audiebatur).* *While Ardea is besieged (oppugnatur), the conversation, in the tent of Tarquin, turned (incident) upon their wives.* But when another action wholly corresponds with it in time, and *dum* signifies *as long as*, the Latins admit the imperfect also; e. g. *As long as these things were going on (agebantur) at Veii, the citadel of Rome was (fuit) in great fear, where Livy could have said erat, instead of fuit.*

295. (b) *Dum, till, until*, is used chiefly with only two tenses, the present and the perfect; with the perfect, when the actions are *past*; but with the present, when they are *future*. When the perfect occurs, the indicative only is used, because, then, the event has *actually taken place*; when the present occurs, then too, in stating a *definite* and *certain* fact, the indicative is used; but the subjunctive, which is the most usual, is employed, when the speaker considers the occurrence of the action referred to, as *only possible*, when he intimates, that its occurrence must be waited for, or expresses a *wish* and *purpose*, or when the sentence contains only a general precept; see § (270. g.); e. g. *Till they come (veniunt), Cassius will conquer Dolabella.* *Wait, till I write (scribam) to you.* *We must separate angry men from those whom they would assault, till they recover themselves (colligant).*

The money remained here, until the judges were rejected, dum judices rejectis sunt. The imperfect or pluperfect is used only in narration (*oratio obliqua*), and then, in the subjunctive; e. g. *Fabius sent horsemen to detain the whole army, till he himself came up, dum consequeretur ipse.*

With *expectare, to wait*, that which is still to be waited for, is almost always put in the subjunctive present; for the result is uncertain, *whether*, or *whether not*; the present is then used instead of the future; e. g. *Perhaps thou art waiting, till he shall say, dum dicatur.*

296. (c) *Dum, modo, modo ut, dummodo, if only, provided that, provided; dumne, modone, dummodo done, if only not, provided that not,* always take the subjunctive, since they contain a wish; e. g. *Let them hate me, provided they are in fear, dum metuant; these have never declined authority, provided they could live in ease, dum otiosi essent; I do not grieve, if I seem to any one to have been too indolent hitherto, provided I do not seem so to you, dum ne tibi videar.*

297. (5) *Donec* and *quoad* have the two significations of *as long as*, and *until*. The rules respecting the mode that follows *dum*, when it has these significations, apply also to these two conjunctions; e. g. *As long as the enemy retired (abibant) armed and in close ranks, the infantry were engaged in the pursuit. As long as the master is absent (donec—a best), the slaves rule. Julius Caesar lay there lifeless a long time, till (donec) three slaves conveyed (retulerunt) him to his house. Bibulus did not desert the city, as long as (quoad) the enemy was (fuit) on this side of the Euphrates. Fabius resisted Flaminius, as long as he could, quoad potuit. One lives happy in advanced old age, as long as he can (possit) perform his business, (this is a general truth). If the patient again recover his strength, he must, till sufficient strength return to his body —, donec sati virium corpori redeat, (general, as before). The stream on the left is called the Rhine, till it empties, donec effluit. It is better for you to wait there, till (quoad) you can (pos-*

sis) know what is to be done. Blockade the city, till (dō-nec) it is delivered (tradatur) to you. In the last two, there is uncertainty respecting the result.

It is evident, that here also, in indefinite and narrative discourse, the subjunctive is always employed, as with all conjunctions, which would otherwise require the indicative. *Quādiū* always takes the indicative, except in indirect or narrative discourse. Comp. §§ (270. c.)—(270. h.).

For *quo ad, how far*, see among the interrogatives.

298. (6) *Antēquam, anteāquam, and priusquam, before, before that.* These conjunctions are often separated, *ante, antea* and *prius* being put in the first clause; e. g. *Nec ante finitum est, quam tribunus militum.*

With a perfect and future perfect, the indicative is the prevailing mode: e. g. *We use our limbs, before we have learned (didicimus) for what advantages we have them. I will answer you, but not before you yourself shall have answered me, sed non ante, quam mihi tu ipse responderis.*

With an imperfect and pluperfect, the subjunctive is the prevailing mode; e. g. *Before Caesar undertook (conaretur) anything against Dumnorix, he sent for his brother. Great talents (indoles) for virtue are often lost, before they can have been able to benefit the state, prodesse potuisse.*

With the present, the indicative and subjunctive are used. The indicative, when a definite case is stated; e. g. *Before I attempt (conor) to touch that, I will mention something else.*

The subjunctive is used in all sentences containing a general statement. Here, consequently, the writer does not speak of events that are to be definitely expected, but only of what is *habitual* or *customary*. The subjunctive is also used, when that which is connected with it, is represented as still

uncertain and future; e. g. *In all business, careful preparation is necessary, before you undertake (aggrederē) anything. Before you come (venias) to the laws of the people, explain the power of that heavenly law. Many do not eat before they go (eant) to bed.*

The rules respecting *priusquam*, apply also to *pridie quam, the day before*; e. g. *The day before the messengers departed, pridie quam — proficisceruntur.*

Examples on §§ 281—298.

(1) Although¹ the disorder² of all things is such³, that⁴ there is no one, who* would not prefer⁵ to be anywhere⁶ than where he is, yet there is no doubt, but that⁷ to be at Rome now is most melancholy⁸. There is no one who does not think⁹, how fearful¹⁰ is an irritated armed conqueror, If we are pleased, when¹¹ we write, who is so envious, as to¹² draw¹³ us away from it? When a Lacedemonian woman had sent her son to battle, and heard, that¹⁴ he had been killed, she said: I bore¹⁵ him for this purpose¹⁶, that he might be one who would not hesitate¹⁷ to die¹⁸ for his country. Truly¹⁹, one dies contentedly²⁰, when he can comfort his sinking²¹ life by his own²² praises. It is not yet a hundred and twenty years, since a law was made²³ by Lucius Piso respecting²⁴ extortion²⁵, whereas before, there had been none. If a bodily pain or infirmity²⁶ of health has prevented²⁷ you from²⁸ being able to come to the sports, I write this for your happiness. Nothing is so difficult but that²⁹ it can be discovered by searching. Since things are so, we can rejoice. Although³⁰ you excel³¹ ever so much³², yet you could not promote³³ all your friends³⁴ to the highest³⁵ offices. Let us enjoy human life, till³⁶ the time comes, when joy itself flies. Since no one, although³⁷ he is rich and honored, can do without³⁸ another, let no one reject³⁹ another haughtily, and let him not refuse to⁴⁰ accept the assistance of a man, however⁴¹ poor he may be. Wait, till your father himself comes to you. The eightieth year admonishes the gray-headed to⁴² collect his luggage⁴³, before he departs⁴⁴ from life. As long as⁴⁵ a good name⁴⁶ is untarnished⁴⁷, it easily compensates⁴⁸ for poverty⁴⁹. I entreat you, not that⁵⁰ I doubt⁵¹ respecting your consistency⁵², but because it is my custom so to entreat.

¹ et si. ² perturbatio. ³ is. ⁴ ut. ⁵ quin (who not). ⁶ ubi vis.

⁷ quip (but that). ⁸ miser. ⁹ cogitare. ¹⁰ metuendus. ¹¹ quum. ¹² ut (as to). ¹³ abducere. ¹⁴ (acc. with inf.). ¹⁵ gignere. ¹⁶ idcirco. ¹⁷ dubitare. ¹⁸ mortem accumbere. ¹⁹ profecto. ²⁰ aequus animus. ²¹ occidere. ²² sus. ²³ ferre. ²⁴ de. ²⁵ pecuniae repetundae. ²⁶ infirmitas. ²⁷ tenere. ²⁸ quominus. ²⁹ quin. ³⁰ licet. ³¹ excellere. ³² quamvis (ever so much). ³³ perducere. ³⁴ (omitted in Lat.). ³⁵ amplius. ³⁶ dum. ³⁷ licet. ³⁸ carere. ³⁹ repudiare. ⁴⁰ quominus. ⁴¹ quamvis. ⁴² ut. ⁴³ sarcinae. ⁴⁴ decedere. ⁴⁵ dum. ⁴⁶ existimatio (good name). ⁴⁷ integer. ⁴⁸ consolari aliquid (to compensate for something). ⁴⁹ egestas. ⁵⁰ non quo. ⁵¹ dubitare de aliqua re. ⁵² constantia.

(2) Do we not¹ see, how² boys rejoice to know something, and how they find pleasure³ in sports and processions⁴? When we are free⁵ from necessary business and cares, we desire⁶ to see, hear and learn something; and we grieve, if we are prevented from⁷ doing* this. Only a few feared, that⁸ their freedom would be taken away⁹. These cities are situated far¹⁰ from the sea, indeed¹¹, they lie¹² at the foot of the Apennines, the most healthful¹³ of mountains. Darius did not doubt, that¹⁴ everyting which Bessus said, was true. When flatterers praise any one, they often fear, that¹⁵ they do not find the best¹⁶ words, and that¹⁷ they may omit things¹⁸ which might be pleasing to the other to hear. When Timoleon had killed his brother, his mother never looked upon him, without¹⁹ calling him a fraticide²⁰. Why do we often wish a more delicate²¹ hearing, since²² this certainly deprives²³ us of a portion of sleep? What is disgraceful, however much²⁴ it be concealed²⁵, can in no way be honorable²⁶. Men fond of authority²⁷, disregard²⁸ all divine and human laws, provided²⁹ they obtain power, and provided what they have wished, be not taken from them. There is no one so rude, as not to³⁰ know, that³¹ everything which he sees, is governed by a wise God, and³² that it is not possible³³ for³⁴ man to do this. Kings may keep³⁵ their empires, the rich their riches, provided³⁶ they forbear³⁷ to envy me. Hercules himself was afflicted³⁸ with pain, when he was seeking immortality by death itself. Supposing that³⁹ old age takes⁴⁰ away other things⁴¹, it certainly brings⁴² wisdom. He had said this, when a servant⁴³ announced that Caesar was coming. It was not yet day⁴⁴, when it was known⁴⁵ at Ameria, that Roscius was killed. In that⁴⁶ he stood⁴⁷ by him, he showed that he was his friend.

¹ nonne. ² ut. ³ teneri (to find pleasure in). ⁴ pompa. ⁵ vacuus. ⁶ avere. ⁷ quominus. ⁸ posse. ⁹ ne. ¹⁰ adimere. ¹¹ procul. ¹² quin. ¹³ subjacere (to lie at the foot of). ¹⁴ saluber. ¹⁵ quin. ¹⁶ ut (that not). ¹⁷ apatus. ¹⁸ ne. ¹⁹ res. ²⁰ quin. ²¹ fraticida. ²² subtilis. ²³ quum. ²⁴ admere. ²⁵ quamvis. ²⁶ occultare. ²⁷ honestus. ²⁸ imperiosus (men—authority).

²⁰ negligere. ²⁰ dum. ²⁰ quin (as — to). ²¹ (acc. with inf.) ²² neque (and not). ²³ fieri posse. ²⁴ ut. ²⁵ sibi habere. ²⁶ dummōdo. ²⁷ abstinēre. ²⁸ frangēre (imperf.). ²⁹ et (supposing that). ³⁰ auferre. ³¹ caetera. ³² afferre. ³³ puer. ³⁴ lucēre (to be day). ³⁵ scire. ³⁶ quam (in that). ³⁷ adesse.

(3) Vespasian lived in a small city, till¹ a province with an army was offered² to him, while living³ in retirement. Alexander was displeased⁴ that⁵ a city should stand in the way⁶ of⁷ his entering⁸ Egypt without anxiety⁹. Caesar believed that it was not best to wait till¹⁰ the forces of the enemy increased and the horsemen returned. As long as¹¹ the laws of Lycurgus had influence¹², the Lacedemonian people were brave. The state was not then in our power¹³, when the laws had no influence, when courts were prostrate¹⁴, and the customs¹⁵ of the country destroyed¹⁶. While I was writing this, all were in most joyful expectation. As¹⁷ you have hitherto heard me attentively, hear the rest also¹⁸. Caesar left the camp, before they could come to his assistance from the city. I no longer¹⁹ ask you to²⁰ return home, nay²¹, I myself wish to fly hence, and to go somewhere else²². The soldiers of Caesar did not cease²³ to pursue the enemy, until they approached the gates of the city. Although²⁴ the weather²⁵ and age²⁶ may have wasted²⁷ this oak, yet there will still be in these places an oak, which they will call (sub.) the oak of Marius. Since²⁸ we are at leisure²⁹, we wish to speak at length³⁰ concerning civil law. The whole army of Varus retreated³¹ to the camp before a weapon³² could be thrown, or our men³³ come nearer³⁴. Whoever determines³⁵ to rob³⁶, is a robber, before he defiles³⁷ his hands.

¹ quoad. ² offerre. ³ latens (while living in retirement). ⁴ aegre ferre. ⁵ quod. ⁶ obstare (to stand — way). ⁷ quominus. ⁸ intrare ⁹ securius. ¹⁰ dum. ¹¹ dum (as — as). ¹² vigēre (to have influence). ¹³ noster (in — power). ¹⁴ jacēre. ¹⁵ mos. ¹⁶ occidēre. ¹⁷ uti. ¹⁸ item. ¹⁹ jam. ²⁰ ut. ²¹ quin. ²² alio. ²³ desistēre. ²⁴ quum. ²⁵ tempestas. ²⁶ vetustas. ²⁷ consumēre. ²⁸ quoniam. ²⁹ vacuus esse. ³⁰ copiose. ³¹ se recipēre. ³² telum. ³³ nostri (our men). ³⁴ prope. ³⁵ constituēre. ³⁶ latrocinari. ³⁷ inquinare.

(4) Many wish to be considered good men, although¹ they are not, and are not considered such. Although² ambition is a vice, yet it is often the cause of virtues. As you know, Germany occupies³ only a small part⁴ of Europe. No one ever reproached⁵ Cato the elder⁶, although⁷ he had many enemies, no one Marius, although many envied him, that⁸ they had come from the free towns. The laws of Caesar must be retained⁹, not that¹⁰ I approve¹¹ them, but because a regard¹²

must be had¹³ to quiet¹⁴ and peace. I had already sealed¹⁵ a letter, when the messenger¹⁶ suddenly delivered¹⁷ to me your letter, from¹⁸ which I do not doubt, that¹⁹ you waited for Pompey till he returned from Ariminum, and that you have already set out for Epirus. When your freed-man had come to me and said, that²⁰ he was about to start for you immediately, I gave him this letter. Before the messengers returned from Delphi, new military tribunes²¹ entered²² upon their office²³. While these things were going on at Rome, conventions²⁴ were held²⁵ in Etruria at the temple of Voltumna. There was a²⁶ time, when men wandered²⁷ about in the fields like²⁸ beasts, and supported²⁹ their life by wild food. The military tribunes, Titinius and Genucius, who had marched against the Falisci and the Capenates, while³⁰ they were carrying on the war with more ardor³¹ than wisdom³², fell³³ into an ambush³⁴. When³⁵ Gyges had turned³⁶ the bezil³⁷ of the ring he had found³⁸, to the palm³⁹ of his hand, he was seen by no one. A careful⁴⁰ physician, before he endeavors⁴¹ to prescribe medicine for the patient, must⁴² ascertain⁴³ his disease. In that⁷ you were silent, you admitted⁴⁴, that that was true. As soon as⁴⁵ Plancus came to the market, he attached⁴⁶ himself to the friendship of Cicero. Memmius had set out for Mitylene, the day before⁴⁷ I came to Athens.

¹ ut. ² licet. ³ tenere. ⁴ locus. ⁵ objicere. ⁶ senex. ⁷ quum. ⁸ quod. ⁹ servandū esse. ¹⁰ quo. ¹¹ probare. ¹² ratio. ¹³ habere. ¹⁴ otium (in genitive). ¹⁵ obsignare. ¹⁶ tabellarius. ¹⁷ reddere. ¹⁸ ex. ¹⁹ quin. ²⁰ (acc. with inf.). ²¹ tribūnū militū. ²² inire. ²³ magistratus. ²⁴ concilium. ²⁵ habere. ²⁶ quidam. ²⁷ vagari. ²⁸ modo. ²⁹ agere. ³⁰ dum. ³¹ animus. ³² consilium. ³³ praecepitare. ³⁴ insidiae. ³⁵ quum. ³⁶ convertēre. ³⁷ pa-
la. ³⁸ (participle). ³⁹ palma (palm of hand). ⁴⁰ diligens. ⁴¹ conari. ⁴² (verbal adjective). ⁴³ cognoscere. ⁴⁴ concedere. ⁴⁵ quum primum. ⁴⁶ se ad amicitiam conferre. ⁴⁷ pridie.

Relative Words.

299. *Qui, quae, quod, unde, ubi* and the like. Relative words take, in Latin, sometimes the indicative, sometimes the subjunctive.

(1) The indicative is used, when the relative sentence directly asserts a *fact*, and is only a more definite explanation of the subject or object of the preceding sentence; e. g. *He has found something which seemed useful*, *visum est*. *They*

do not see the penalty of the laws, which they so often transgress, perrumpunt. Themistocles said after the victory of that war, which was carried on with the Persians, fuit (gestum est).

300. (2) But the subjunctive is used, when relative sentences belong to the *narrative* discourse of another, and, therefore, when the words and thoughts of another are related; e. g. *Panaetus thinks that those duties are conformable to nature, which are derived (ducantur) from happiness. I thought that I must remain where I was, essem.*

301. (3) The subjunctive is further used, when one speaks with *doubt* and *uncertainty*, where the English sometimes employs the auxiliary verbs *may*, *can*, *might* and the like, or the particle of doubt, *perhaps*, or when the *purpose* for which something is to be done, is denoted; e. g. *If everything must be done, which friends (may) wish —, velint. You have here nothing, which you can refer (referas) to the body. Caesar sent trusty persons to reconnoitre, qui explorarent.* For *qui* expressing *purpose*, *result*, and *quality*, see § 308 et seq.

302. (4) The subjunctive is often used also, when such relative clauses are introduced into a sentence already containing a subjunctive or the accusative and infinitive,— clauses denoting only something *represented* and *conceived*, and not anything actual; e. g. *Do we not see, that these set over against the greatest anxieties, that pleasure which they derive (quam capiant) from learning? At least a duty which is derived (quod ducatur) from society, must be the greatest.*

By this use of the subjunctive, the parts of a sentence are represented as more intimately connected with the whole. Yet we very often find that such sentences are introduced with the definite indicative, and that they are considered independent of the infinitive, because they designate something that actually happens, or has happened; e. g. *Who does not know, that if several wish (velint) to emerge from the deep, those will be nearer breathing, who approach (approinquant) nearer the surface of the water?* Here, generally, it seems to be the aim of the writer to indicate, that what is asserted in the relative clause, is not merely a view of the speaker, but pos-

sesses a *historic certainty* independent of this. If, moreover, in such clauses the present and not a past tense is used, the indicative appears, because the words are retained in the same form, in which they would be spoken in direct discourse (*oratio recta*). Respecting such passages, however, the learned often differ.

303. (5) A relative clause after *esse* or *deesse*, is often the periphrastic predicate of a subject really existing, or of one considered as only general or independent. Then the Latin says, *Est qui, sunt qui*. Instead of saying, *Some say*, the idea is expressed by a periphrasis: *There are some, who say*. Here the first clause is incomplete; the predicate is wanting, which is supplied by the clause, *who say*. But the use of the mode is different, according as the subject is represented as definite or indefinite. The following principles are to be noticed:

(a) When the subject is not specified directly and really, but is only *generally* stated, and it is merely said, *There are persons, who ; there are philosophers, who ; there are bad men, who —*, etc., in such sentences, the predicate clause states something only as *possible* or merely *conceived*, and hence the subjunctive is always used. An *ideal* subject requires here only an *ideal* predicate, which is denoted by the subjunctive. Hence, *There are persons, who say, sunt, qui dicant ; there are philosophers, who think, qui censemant ; there have been philosophers, who thought, qui censerent ; there are none, who are preferred to you, qui praefrantur ; what secret corner is there, in which the fear of death does not enter (intret) ? there is something which pertains (pertinet) to all men.*

In all these and similar phrases, the subject is not really definite, but is described only generally, so that the sentences are abridged ones, instead of *They are of such a character, that, sunt ejusmodi or tales, ut,—* and, in consequence of this *ut* (which is contained in *qui*), a subjunctive is necessary. Therefore such clauses containing a subjunctive, show the *nature* or *quality* of the indefinite subject.

In like manner, the subject is general and indefinite in the phrases, *quis est, quid est, quotusquisque est* (how few are

there), *nemo* or *nullus est*, *nihil est*, *aliquid est*, *quidquid est*. Where these occur, the relative clause, containing the predicate, must be expressed by a subjunctive; e. g. *Who is there*, or *there is no one, that denies this*, *quis est*, or *nemo est*, *qui hoc negat*. *How few are there, who have understood this*, *quotusquisque est*, *qui hoc intellexerit*! *There is nothing which makes (quod faciat) men so unhappy*.

The phrase, *est quod*, is a periphrasis; e. g. *There is some difference*, *est quod differat*. *Est quod gaudeas*, *there is something on account of which you can rejoice*, i. e. *you can rejoice on account of something, you have cause to rejoice*. Moreover, *quid est*, *quod* (*quam ob rem*), also signifies merely *why?* e. g. *Why do you complain?* *Have you any cause to complain?* *quid est*, *quod querare?* Also *non* or *nihil est*, *quod*, signifies *it is not necessary that*, or *there is no cause that*; e. g. *It is not necessary that you should be ashamed, you need not be*, etc., *non (nihil) est*, *quod te pudeat*. Comp. § 277.

Quid est, quod, with the subjunctive, has rather the interrogative sense; *Is it necessary?* i. e. *it is not necessary*; e. g. *Why should you, why need you rejoice?* i. e. *you need not*, *Quid est, quod gaudeas?* on the contrary, with the indicative, it has the interrogative sense of *why?* in which case there is a wish to ascertain the cause of something; e. g. *Why do you rejoice?* *quid est, quod gaudeas?* or the sense of *what is that which?* e. g. *quid est, quod confirmabat?* *what was he asserting?* Comp. § 306.

Finally, when both clauses are negative, the contracted *quin* is used for *qui non* (but only for the nominative), and is also followed by the subjunctive; e. g. *There is no one who will not prefer*, *nemo est, qui in malit.* *There is nothing which does not (but that) perish*, *nihil est, quin intereat*. Yet the uncontracted *qui*, *quae*, *quod non*, is not inadmissible, especially when *non* is designed to negative a single word of the sentence.

304. (b) But when the subject is still more nearly and almost precisely defined by the addition of a numeral adjective, e. g. *alii*, *quidam*, *multi*, *nonnulli*, *pauci*, the predicate intro-

duced by *qui* is often considered as a real occurrence, and is put in the indicative, although in many places the subjunctive also is used, when the turn of thought requires it; e. g. *There are certain (quaedam) animals, which (in quibus) possess (inest) something like virtue. There are some (nonnullae) schools, which, by their ideas of the highest good and evil, destroy (pervertunt) every duty;* where, however, many manuscripts and editions read *pervertant*; in the latter case, *which (quae)* is equivalent to *such that (tales ut)*, and therefore takes the subjunctive, according to § 308.

305. (c) When, in addition to the principal predicate, denoted by the clause with *qui*, the subject is made still more definite by introducing a second predicate before and in the sentence, then the subject, at first indefinitely defined, becomes *definite*, and hence the predicate with *qui* can stand definitely in the indicative, although, even here, the subjunctive is also admissible. Hence, when such a more definite explanatory clause is introduced between *qui* and its predicate, an indicative can follow the indefinitely described *sunt, qui*; e. g. *There are, and have been many, who, seeking for the quiet of which I speak, have withdrawn from public business, and have retired to private life, qui eam, quam dico, tranquillitatem expetentes a negotiis publicis se removereunt, ad otiumque profugerunt* (where, to be sure, many manuscripts and editions read *removerint* and *profugerint*). *As there are persons, who, as I have said above, prefer the business of war to that of the state, qui, quemadmodum supra dixi, urbanis rebus bellicas anteponunt* (where also other manuscripts read *anteponant*).

306. On the contrary, when the first clause with *esse* is already complete in itself, having its own subject and predicate, the relative clause with *qui* merely states a fact, which serves to define the subject more fully, and therefore is put only in the indicative; here the first clause is merely the pre-

dicate of the relative clause ; e. g. *Those things which were said, are unimportant*, sunt levia (ea), quae dicebantur. *There are wicked men, who boast (gloriantur) of their evil deeds.* *What kind of a man is he, whom we call (dicimus) prudent?* *What sound is that, which fills (complet) my ears?*

So the indicative must naturally be used, where there is a reference to some definite person or thing ; e. g. *This is the philosopher, who teaches*, docet, not doceat. The following sentence is different : *There is a philosopher who teaches*; this is expressed by doceat. So there is a difference between, *Quis est, qui hoc negat?* and, *Quis est, qui hoc negat?* The former signifies, nemo hoc negat ; the latter inquires, either for the name or the nature of the man who denies something.

307. (6) Further ; the subjunctive is used with *qui* after the verbs *reperire*, *invenire*, *nancisci* (*to find, to meet with*), and *habere* (*to have, to know*), when the predicate of their subject or object is stated. But here also the subject and object must be only generally and indefinitely described ; e. g. *No crime can be found or mentioned, which is worthy of (sit) greater punishment.* *You will find no state, which has been (fuerit) more faithful to the Romans, than this.* *I can find no one, who believes (arbitretur), that this is unjust.* *We seldom meet with a man, with whose character we agree (congruamus).* *I know nothing which I can compare*, nihil habeo, quod possim comparare. *I have nothing to write*, nihil habeo, quod scribam, and *I know not what to write*, non habeo, quid scribam. *I have no reason to accuse old age*, non habeo, quid incusem senectutem.

308. (7) The subjunctive is used with *qui* and other relative words, when they are equivalent to the conjunction *ut* and a pronoun of any person (*ego, tu, is*). The relative may denote the *consequence*, and may contain the idea of *so that, as to*, (where often the words *tam, talis, is*, stand in connec-

tion), or it may denote the *purpose*, and signify *that*, in *order that*, as is particularly the case with *quo*, *for the sake of*, *in order that*; non *quo*, *not that*; e. g. *He seeks a physician, in order that he may have his wound dressed by him*, a *quo* (*for ut ab eo*) *obligetur*; *that philosopher explains this clearly, so that I understand it*, *quod* (*for ut id*) *intelligam*; *wisdom is to be employed, in order that she may make herself our most certain guide to pleasure*, *quae* (*ut ea*) *se praebat*; *wisdom alone is of such a nature, as to banish sadness from the mind*, *quae* (*ut ea*) *moestitiam pellat ex animis*; *he does everything for the sake of obtaining his object*, *quo assequatur*; *give him something, in order that he may be the more obliging*, *quo officiosior sit*; *Artaxerxes gave Themistocles the city Lampsacus, that he might obtain his wine from thence*, *unde* (*for ut inde*) *vinum sumeret*.

The pronoun *qui* refers, as the examples show, to the most important word, whether subject or object, of the principal clause. This word must therefore belong to both clauses, being expressed in the latter by the pronoun. If this is not the case, *qui* cannot be used instead of *ut*; e. g. *I have done everything, that he might be assisted*, *ut ille*, not *qui*; *I brought it to this, that he was pardoned*, *ut ei*, not *cui*. Hence *qui* is never used for *ut is*, when *is* signifies *that one, that, those*, followed by *qui*; e. g. *It is ordained by law, that the goods of those, who*, *ut eorum bona*, *qui*, not *quorum bona*,—therefore only *is* is used, when something named is referred to. Comp. § 310.

Qui is most frequently used in the following cases:

309. (a) After the adjectives *dignus* (*worthy of*), *indignus* (*unworthy*), *aptus* and *idoneus* (*fit, suitable*); e. g. *Pleasure is not worthy the consideration of a wise man*, *ad quam* (*for ut ad eam*) *sapiens respiciat*; *truly, thou art worthy to be esteemed by all*, *qui (ut tu) diligaris*; *Pollio is worthy of thy esteem*, *quem (ut eum) diligas*;

Perhaps we are not unworthy to impose the penalty upon ourselves, qui (ut nos) irrogemus; the case is worthy of your long and repeated consideration, quam (ut eam) consideres; I am not unworthy that you should communicate to me your wisdom, ne ego quidem indignus, cui (ut mihi) copiam scientiae tuae facias; we consider understanding alone fit to be trusted, cui (ut ei) creditur.

With the adjectives *dignus* and *indignus*, the Latins use *qui*, *quae*, *quod*, almost exclusively, instead of *ut*, and prefer *ut*, only when *qui* stands near it; e. g. *These are the men whom you have thought worthy of being considered as your allies, hi sunt, quos, ut socios haberes, dignos duxisti, not quos, quos twice.* In English, we often use the infinitive, which in Latin is admissible only in the poets; e. g. *Thou art worthy to be honored, qui colare or quem colamus, not coli.*

310. (b) *Qui* is used after the words *tam*, *tantus*, *talis*, *ejusmodi*, *is* (*of such a nature, such, so*); e. g. *No one was so shameless as to demand money, qui (ut is) poscēret; there is no place so remote, that the desire of our men has not reached it, quo (ut eo) non pervaserit; all things are not of such a nature (ea e), that their issue can be foreseen, quorum (ut earum) exitus providēri possit; I am such, that I have never done anything more for my own sake, than for my fellow-citizens, is, qui (ut ego) fecerim; we are not of such a character, that even our enemies cannot censure us, ii, quos (ut nos) vituperare ne inimici quidem possint; we are not of such a nature, that our mind wavers, ii, quorum (ut noster) vagetur animus; you are not such a man, that nothing but the civil law delights you, is, quem (ut te) delectet; use no word by which any one can be offended, ne utere verbo, unde aliquis possit offendī, for tali verbo, ut inde.*

But *qui* with the subjunctive is used after *is*, *ea*, *id*, only when it expresses quality, and signifies, *of that character, such, etc.*, where that would be expected to follow. On the contrary, when it signifies *this, that, or such*, followed by *which* or *as*, then, unless other circumstances require the subjunctive, the indicative is used; e. g. *They are wicked men, who collect money contrary to the law, ii, qui cogunt; We are such as we ought to be, ii, qui esse debemus.*

311. (c) *Qui* is used after the verbs *mittēre*, *praemittēre*,

remittēre and *deligēre* (to choose), where it has the sense of *ut* denoting *purpose*. We use here either *in order that, that, to, or who, which*, with the auxiliary *should*, which here denotes purpose; e. g. *Caesar sent Crassus to obtain the government of that state for him, qui (ut is) obtineat; I wished to send Marius back to you, in order that you might send him to me, quem (ut eum) ad me mittēres; Caesar chose the best, that he might avail himself of their advice, quorum (ut eorum) consilio uteretur.* And so almost always with these verbs.

312. (d) *Qui* is used after *quam* preceded by a comparative, where the *ut* contained in *qui* expresses the result; e. g. *The loss (damn a) of a good name and credibility is greater than can be estimated, quam quae (ut ea) aestimari possint; I am too great to be injured by fortune, major sum, quam cui (for ut mihi) fortuna nocere possit.*

313. (8) The subjunctive is used, further, with *qui* and other relative words for *quum* (*because, in that, since, when, although*), including also the force of a pronoun of any person, (*ego, tu, is*); e. g. *Some act foolishly, in that they ask for truth in this experiment, qui (quum ii) exigant; we must not wait for the remedy of time, since we can realize it by reason, quam (quum eam) repraesentare possimus; why shall I invite you, when I know that my invitation is rejected by you, a quo (quum a te) sci am meam invitationem repellit? Messana itself, although it is a beautiful city, is nevertheless —, quae (quum or licet ea) ornata sit.*

Qui has the signification of *since, in that, that*, especially after an exclamation expressing *praise* or *blame*, when the reason of the *praise* or *blame* is given by it; e. g. *O unhappy man, in that he thought a slave more faithful than his wife! O miserum, qui — putaret.* Here no external sign, nor external quality of the person unhappy, is specified, but simply the reason of his unhappy inward condition.

Here belong *quippe qui, ut pote qui* and *ut qui,*

since he, because he ; e. g. The flatterer is not easily recognized, since, even when he is quarreling, he often flatters, and under the pretence of disputing, he compliments, quippe qui adversando saepe assentetur, et litigare se simulans blandiatur ; *Titurius now for the first time began to be anxious, since before, he had foreseen nothing,* ut qui nihil ante praevidisset.

But when *quippe qui, utpote qui* and *ut qui*, form merely a relative clause, referring to *ille, or is* (*he*), *ego, tu*, or when *quippe* and *qui* have each their own verb, and each forms a sentence, the indicative is used ; e. g. *Since he, who lives without friendship, is more like a wild beast, than a human being,* *quippe, qui amicitiae expers vivit, ferae propior est, quam homini* ; here the clause with *qui* does not denote a cause, but is merely explanatory, and therefore takes the indicative ; *we do not fear this, inasmuch as we are accustomed to fear nothing,* *utpote qui nihil metuere soleamus, not soleamus* ; *I did not trust him, because he had once shamefully deceived me,* *ut qui me — de ceperat* ; in these two examples, the relative clause contains indeed a reason, but the writer wishes to make prominent, not this idea of cause, but the *reality* of his assertion ; the *facts*, therefore, *we are accustomed* and *he had deceived*, he expresses positively and decidedly by the indicative.

314. (9) The subjunctive is used with *qui*, when it expresses the cause of what precedes, and therefore stands for *quod* and may be rendered by *that* or *because* ; e. g. *I thank my country, that it has punished me,* *qua e (quod ea) multaverit* ; *accuse nature, that she has concealed truth,* *qua e — abstruserit*.

(10) The subjunctive is used also with the absolute neuter accusative *quod*, signifying *as far as, so far as* ; e. g. *As far as I know,* *quod sciam* ; *as far as I remember,* *quod meminerim* ; *as far as it can be to your advantage,* *quod tuo commodo fiat (fieri possit)*.

Examples on §§ 299—314.

(1) There is no one who does not know how terrible¹ is an angry conqueror, when armed. If we are pleased when² we write, who is so envious³, as to⁴ prevent⁵ us from it? but if we are burdened⁶, who is⁷ to prescribe⁸ bounds⁹ to another's assiduity? I am accustomed to call to me chosen¹⁰ men, in order that¹¹ I may look upon¹² them, when I rehearse¹³, may trust them, and respect¹⁴ and fear them. There is no one who¹⁵ does not prefer money to wisdom. Thou wilt find no one more worthy of¹⁶ thy esteem¹⁷, than young¹⁸ Marius. There is no pain which length of time¹⁹ does not mitigate²⁰ and diminish²¹. There are some²² who make friendship burdensome²³. One cannot easily be found, to whom this troublesome business can be intrusted²⁴. Alexander said at the tomb²⁵ of Achilles, O fortunate youth, in that thou hast found Homer, as the panegyrist²⁶ of thy valor. There are many reasons why²⁷ the ancient orators noted down²⁸ their discourses, and afterwards, at²⁹ their leisure, perfected³⁰ them. There is certainly no one who denies, that³¹ immortality has been given to the soul. It is these who reproach³² us³³ with too great severity³⁴, and bring our instructions into disrepute³⁵. I think³⁶ I have erred³⁷, in that I have deserted³⁸ you. O the great power of truth, because it easily defends itself! Words have been invented³⁹ to⁴⁰ make known⁴¹ our intentions. The consul Caninius was so remarkably⁴² vigilant⁴³, that he did not sleep during his whole consulship. The men who subdue their passions, have always been found fewer, than those, who subdue the armies of the enemy. I have selected⁴⁴ two, that⁴⁵ I may honor them particularly⁴⁶, and be most friendly⁴⁷ to them.

¹ metuendus. ² quum. ³ invidus. ⁴ qui (as to). ⁵ abducere. ⁶ laborare. ⁷ quis est, qui. ⁸ statuere. ⁹ modus. ¹⁰ electus. ¹¹ qui (in order that—them). ¹² intuēri. ¹³ recitare. ¹⁴ observare. ¹⁵ quin (who not). ¹⁶ qui. ¹⁷ diligere. ¹⁸ adolescens. ¹⁹ longinquitas. ²⁰ mollire. ²¹ minuēre. ²² quidam. ²³ molestus. ²⁴ committere. ²⁵ tumulus. ²⁶ praeco. ²⁷ propter (with the relative). ²⁸ littēris consignare. ²⁹ per. ³⁰ componere. ³¹ (acc. with inf.). ³² objicere. ³³ (dative). ³⁴ (accusative). ³⁵ infamare (to bring into disrepute). ³⁶ mihi videor. ³⁷ peccare (inf.). ³⁸ discedere. ³⁹ reperire. ⁴⁰ qui. ⁴¹ indicare. ⁴² mirificus. ⁴³ vigilantia. ⁴⁴ deligere. ⁴⁵ qui (that them). ⁴⁶ praecipue. ⁴⁷ amicissimus.

(2) There is a God who rules¹ the whole world and takes care of it. Another will not easily be found, who can give better advice, than you. Dumnorix, as he² was very popu-

lar³ among the Aedui collected⁴ a great number of men. Who is there, who does not know what pleasure is? Although* the weather⁵ and age⁶ have wasted this oak, yet there will be an oak in these places, which they will call the oak of Marius⁷. Thou wilt find no one who will deny⁸, that⁹ Demosthenes was the greatest orator. It was that Lucius Brutus, who freed the state from tyranny. No one is happy, who so¹⁰ lives, that¹¹ he can be put to death with impunity¹². Who has been found, except Clodius, that has censured the consulship of Cicero? Many have been found, who were ready to spend¹³ not only their money, but also their life for their country. Many men are not worthy, that¹⁴ we should devote¹⁵ to them a portion of our life. We sleep whole nights, and there is scarcely any one¹⁶ in which we do not dream¹⁷. Marius violated¹⁸ fidelity and justice, in that¹⁹, by false accusations²⁰, he made²¹ Metellus, a most upright²² citizen, odious. There are many very excellent²³ men, who come to these places²⁴ for the sake²⁵ of their health. Who is so unreasonable as to²⁶ censure these regulations²⁷ of Solon? No one is so fortunate, that another does not equal²⁸ him. Those whom you have recommended to me, are worthy of²⁹ your recommendation³⁰ to others. No one is so afflicted, that³¹ we cannot comfort him. Why³² shall I invite you, since³¹ others have invited you in vain? O a voice, worthy of³⁰ being heard³³ by all people³⁴. O a voice, which must³⁵ be sent to the assembly of the dead, in order that princes and kings may swear by³⁶ its³⁷ words.

¹ regere. ² qui (as he). ³ gratiosus. ⁴ cogere. ⁵ quum. ⁶ tempestas. ⁷ Marianus. ⁸ (present). ⁹ (acc. with inf.). ¹⁰ ea lege. ¹¹ ut. ¹² impune. ¹³ profundere. ¹⁴ qui. ¹⁵ impendere. ¹⁶ neque ullus (nor any one). ¹⁷ somniare. ¹⁸ discedere. ¹⁹ qui. ²⁰ crimen. ²¹ in invidiam adducere (to make odious). ²² bonus. ²³ optimus. ²⁴ loca. ²⁵ causa (for the sake of). ²⁶ qui. ²⁷ institutum. ²⁸ aequiparare. ²⁹ qui. ³⁰ (verb.). ³¹ qui. ³² quid. ³³ (active). ³⁴ (nominative). ³⁵ (verbal adjective). ³⁶ in. ³⁷ qui.

INTERROGATIVES, AND THEIR CONNECTION WITH THE VERB.

315. Questions are asked, in English, either by interrogatives, which may be adjectives, pronouns or particles; or they are asked by placing the sentence in an interrogative form; e. g. *How many books has Cicero written?* *How great were the pyramids?* *Who painted this figure?* *Where*

was Cicero born? *Will you set out in the morning?* *Hast thou read Cicero?*

But, in Latin, questions are indicated almost wholly by interrogative words, seldom without. Such interrogative words are, *quis*, *quid*, *quisnam*, *qualis*, *uter*, *quam*, *quantus*, *quantum*, *quot*, *quidni*, *quare*, *cur*, *quoad*, *quando*, *ubi*, *quo*, *unde*, *quemadmodum*, *quomodo*, *qui*, *ut*, *num*, *ne*, *utrum*, *nonne*, *an*, *anne*, *anon*, *ecquis*, *numquis*, etc.

These questions are of two kinds, either independent and direct, or dependent and indirect.

INDEPENDENT OR DIRECT QUESTIONS.

316. Independent or direct questions are such as are considered and represented as *independent* of any preceding word. They contain the very words which are or were addressed to some person. They are of such a nature, also, that an answer is generally expected after them, except in the case of a mere oratorical question, and especially in the case of an exclamation. Such a question can be stated either *definitely*, e. g. *Who is this man?* or *doubtfully* (indefinitely), e. g. *Who can this man be?* The indicative is used, in Latin, when the question is *definite*; but the subjunctive, when it implies *doubt*; e. g. *Why dost thou torment me?* *cur me excrucias?* *Whence comes it, that it snows in winter?* *unde fit, ut hieme ningat?* *Whither goest thou?* *quo pergis?* *Who can deny this?* *quis hoc neget?*

317. In English, as before stated, these questions do not always have an interrogative word before them, but they are often indicated merely by an interrogative position; e. g. *Does this journey seem perilous to you?* *Do you praise these?* *Do you long for something more?* But the Latin generally employs one of its interrogative particles, viz. *num* or *ne*. Hence the above examples are expressed: *N u m periculōsum hoc iter tibi vidētur?* *Hosne laudas?* or *laudasne hos?* *N u m quid amplius desideras?* Questions are rarely found

without an interrogative word; e. g. *Can anything be better?* potest quidquam esse melius? for num potest quidquam —? When the interrogative is omitted, then, as in the example, the principal word in the interrogative clause is placed first, and it is made emphatic in asking the question: *Dubium est (is it doubtful), ad quem hoc maleficium pertineat?*

318. The interrogative *ne* is never placed, either at the beginning of a question, or before the single word on which the force of the question rests, but is always appended to that word; e. g. *Do I seem to you to understand the force of words sufficiently?* satisne videor vim verborum tenere? *Are there three kinds of blessings, or more?* triane sunt genera bonorum, an plura? *Does sorrow befall man alone, or beasts also?* in hominem ne solum cadit aegritudo, an etiam in belluas? *Wilt thou, O wise man, laugh?* tunne, sapiens, ridebis? *Is this never useful?* nunquamne hoc est utile? *Does he err himself, or does he wish others to err?* ipse ne errat, an alias vult errare?

When this *ne* relates to *hic*, *haec*, *hoc* and *sic*, it is often written *hiccine*, *haeccine*, *hoccine* and *siccine*; e. g. *Hast thou seen this man?* hunc cine hominem vidisti? *Have these, thus made an assault upon the enemy?* sic cine hi in hostem impetum fecerunt?

DEPENDENT OR INDIRECT QUESTIONS.

319. When questions are made *dependent* on any word, and have thereby lost the external form of questions, since they no longer ask directly, and require no answer, they are called *dependent* or *indirect*, also *oblique*. The following are direct questions: *Does this journey seem perilous to you?* Why dost thou torment me? How canst thou predict everything? By placing substantives, adjectives and verbs before the above sentences, indirect questions may be formed, when such questions *depend upon* these preceding words; thus,

The inquiry is, whether this journey seems perilous to you; I know not, why thou dost torment me; no one knows, how thou canst predict all things. It is evident, that these questions have lost their interrogative nature, and by their dependence upon the preceding clause, have passed over to narrative discourse.

320. When the second clause is made to depend upon the first, the best Latin writers always use the subjunctive, to indicate dependence. Comp. § (270. f.) Hence the above examples are expressed: *Quaeritur, num periculōsum hoc iter tibi videatur; nescio, cur me excrucies; nemo scit, quomodo omnia praedicere possis.* So, *I know not what book you are reading, have read, and will read, nescio, quem librum legas, legēris, lecturus sis.* *Tell me whether your father is at home, has been, will be, dic mihi, num pater tuus domi sit, fuerit, futurus sit.*

321. An indirect question, therefore, always depends upon something, either preceding or following. But it is not to be inferred from this, that every question which is preceded by something, or has something belonging to it, is an indirect question; e. g. *The question is, Have you had intercourse with this man? Say, do these things alarm you?* In both of these examples, the principal sentences form the questions, and are *independent* of the preceding words.

The conjunctions *num*, *ne*, *utrum*, in indirect questions where they have the sense of *whether*, always take the subjunctive, but in direct questions, the indicative; so also *nonne*, *whether not*; e. g. *Is this the only proof?* *num est?* *I do not know whether this is the only proof,* *num sit.* *Were you at that time so mad?* *tantane tum amentia fuisti?* *I ask you, whether you were at that time so mad,* *quaero a te, tantane tum amentia fueris.* *Say, do those things alarm you?* *dic, num te illa terrent?* *Say, whether those things alarm you,* *dic, num te illa terreant.* *Is not the dog like the wolf?* *canis nonne similis est lupo?* *Ask him, whether the dog is not similar to the wolf,* *nonne — sit.*

TWO OR MORE QUESTIONS, DIRECT AND INDIRECT.

322. The inquirer does not always ask respecting *one* person or thing merely, as in all the examples above mentioned, but often also respecting several. These several questions may either be such as are not *opposed* to each other, and therefore each requires an answer, or such as are *opposed* to each other, and only a single answer is expected, which affirms the first or second, or indeed the third.

When they are not opposed to each other, these questions are placed after one another, each having its own interrogative; then the word *or*, denoting antithesis, is not introduced. Yet when there are two such questions, as *or* in English is placed before the second similar interrogative, so is *aut*, in Latin; e. g. *It is disputed whether virtue can perish in man, or whether it can be changed into vice,* n u m interire virtus in homine, aut n u m in vitium possit converti.

Examples: *I ask you, whether Cornelius has disregarded the Aelian law, whether the Fufian, whether he has done violence to the consul, whether, with armed men, he has taken possession of the temple, whether he has defiled the religious usages, has exhausted the treasury, and plundered the republic?* Quaero a te, n u m Cor. Aeliam, n u m Fuf. legem neglexerit, n u m cons. vim attuleroit, n u m arm. hom. temp. tenuerit, n u m relig. pollueroit, aer. exhauserit, remp. compilari? *Had you not seen your father?* Had you not heard that your grandfather, etc.? *Did you not know, etc.?* Non patrem tuum videras? non avum, proavum, non patrum audieras consules fuisse? non denique te Metelli matrimonium tenuisse sciébas?

When *nonne* begins the first of such questions, the other similar ones usually follow with *non* only, which however has the same signification. Comp. Cic. Rosc. Am. 35, where *non* follows *nonne* six times. *Nonne* is seldom repeated.

323. But when the questions are opposed to each other, and the inquirer seeks to ascertain whether the *one* or the *other*, or even a *third*, is that which he wishes to know, and, when therefore, only one answer is necessary for all, then the English, with the second and remaining questions, uses the word *or*. But, in Latin, this *or* is not translated by *aut*,

because that is opposed to *either*, but always by an interrogative.

The most usual mode of forming such questions may be seen from the following table :

<i>First question.</i>	<i>Second question.</i>
(1) <i>utrum</i> (<i>utrum ne</i>)	<i>an</i> (<i>anne, ne</i>)
<i>whether</i>	<i>or</i>
(2) <i>nūm</i> (<i>nūm ne</i>)	<i>a n</i>
<i>whether</i>	<i>or</i>
(3) <i>ne</i>	<i>a n (n e)</i>
<i>whether</i>	<i>or</i>
(4) —	<i>a n (anne, n e)</i>
<i>whether</i>	<i>or</i>

The English *whether* is usually omitted, where the questions are opposed to each other ; e. g. *Do you love him or not?* In the fourth mode above, there is no interrogative in the first question, but only in the question following it.

324. If there are more than two questions, the second and remaining ones begin with *an*. If the second question contains merely the words *or not*, this is expressed by *necne* or *anon*. *Necne* usually stands only in indirect questions, seldom in direct, sometimes with, and sometimes without the preceding verb ; *anon* is mostly used in direct questions, seldom in indirect, with and without a verb. The verb is repeated in both, when emphasis is required. For *or not* we also say *or the contrary*, in Latin *an contra*.

The following examples will illustrate the different ways of forming the questions already described. *Let us distinguish whether one cannot or will not!* *utrum non possit, an nolit!* *Iphicrates was asked, whether he esteemed his father or mother more highly,* *utrum pluris patrem, matremne faceret.* *Must the books of Mago be learned by heart, or can we be satisfied with this ordinary knowledge?* *Num Magonis libri sunt perdiscendi, an contenti esse possūmus?* *Let them see what they wish, whether they wish to take arms for sport or for fighting,* *ad ludendumne, an ad pugnandum arma sint sumptūri.* *Let the Stoicks see, whether pain is an evil or not,* *sitne malum dolor (dolere), necne.* *Do you injure me or not?* *facisne mihi injuriam, annon?* *I wish to know, whether he said this to Clodia, or not?* *dixeritne Clodiae, annon dixerit.* *Do nothing respecting which*

you doubt whether it is right or wrong, aequum sit, an iniquum. The question is, whether three is a few, or many, tria pauca sint, an n. multa. It is uncertain whether the Romans would have conquered, or have been conquered, vicissent, victime essent Romani. Are these thy words, or not? sunt haec tua verba, necne? The question is, whether this happens, or not, fiat, necne fiat. I know not, whether I shall remain at Arpinum, or shall approach nearer, or come to Rome, maneamne Arpinii, a n proprius accēdam, a n veniam Romam. It is important wh' hears this, whether the Senate, or the people, or the judges; whether many, or few, or individuals, senatus, a n populus, a n iudices; frequentes, a n pauci, a n singuli. Has he acted rightly, or the contrary? recte fecit, a n contra.

Of this kind of questions, the third and fourth are most used; the second but seldom.

325. If the word *or* after a preceding question does not contain a new question, opposed to the former, but is used merely instead of the connective *and*, and defines more precisely or changes the word before used, then *aut*, and not an interrogative, is employed; e. g. *Does pleasure make a man better or more praiseworthy?* melioreme aut laudabiliorum virum? not a n, for *praiseworthy* is not opposed to *better*; and hence there is only one question, not two opposed to each other.

326. The interrogative *utrum*, since it properly signifies *which of two*, can be used only in a double question, i. e. where two persons or things are spoken of. Although this is its most common use, yet it is often found, even in Cicero, where there are several questions; e. g. *Have you too little recollection of this, or have I not sufficiently understood you, or have you changed your opinion?* utrum hoc parum commenisti, a n ego non satis intellexi, a n mutasti sententiam? But *utrum* very seldom occurs in a single question.

327. *Ne* is often annexed to *utrum*, sometimes, also, it is inserted in the interrogative clause after *utrum*. This is the case particularly, when, in the two interrogative clauses following one another, there are two words contrasted with each other, which require to be made more emphatic; then the interrogative *ne* is annexed to the first of those words; e. g. *Shall I be silent, or shall I speak openly?* utrum taceamne, a n praedicem? *Do you prefer that we spread the sails immediately, or that we row on slowly?* utrum mavis statimne nos vela facere, a n paullulum remigare?

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN SOME INTERROGATIVES.

328. The interrogatives *ne*, *nonne* and *num*, differ in regular usage from each other. This difference, however, is more evident in direct single questions, than in indirect compound ones. Questions, in reference to the idea and thought of the interrogator, are of three kinds :

(1) The interrogator inquires about something without any view to the kind of answer, without knowing whether the answer will be *yes* or *no*, and without intimating which he desires. The interrogative *ne* is used in a question of this kind ; e. g. *Ought we to imitate these?* hosne imitari debemus ? *Hast thou learned this?* didicistine hoc ? The interrogator here expects for answer either *yes* or *no*, because the interrogative *ne* admits either.

329. (2) The interrogator makes an inquiry in such a manner, as to intimate a wish that the answer may be affirmative, and therefore by *yes*, since he himself is convinced of the truth of that about which he inquires. Here the word *nonne* is used. The English employs an interrogative *not*, which is contained in *nonne* ; e. g. *Ought we not to imitate these?* nonne hos imitari debemus ? Ans. debemus. *Do not the poets wish to be renowned after their death?* nonne poëtæ nobilitari volunt ? Ans. volunt. *Was not Aristides banished on account of his remarkable justice?* Aristides nonne expulsus est ? The inquirer here expects the answer *yes*, *sane*, *certe*.

Frequently also the simple *non* is used interrogatively, without any interrogative particle, for *nonne*, especially after *quid?* or after a whole clause with *quis*, *quid?* e. g. *What? do I not recognize your voice?* quid ? ego non cognosco vocem tuam ? for nonne ego cognosco — ?

330. The above *not* must be distinguished from another which is often used in questions, to negative the verb of the interrogative clause or another single word. The interroga-

tor therefore does not express an affirmative idea, but a negative one. Such a *not* is usually expressed by *non*, and not by *nōne*; yet besides this *non*, an interrogative can be placed before or even annexed to it, therefore also *non ne*; e.g. *What? if I ask you something, will you not answer me?* *quid? si te rogavero aliquid, non (non ne) respondēbis?* (The other had before said, he would *never interrupt* his discourse; consequently, in *non* there is an actual *negative*, and *ne*, when *non ne* is used, is added only as an interrogative). *Do you not remember what I said a little before?* *quid paulo ante dixērim, non (non ne) meministi?* (The other replied to this: *O yes, certainly, memini vero*). *Do you not perceive, that you effect nothing by your daily complaints?* *tu non intelligis?* *Do I not understand what pleasure means?* *Egone non intelligo?* *Could not their anger hereby be appeased?* *Hiscine ira expleri non potuit?*

331. (3) The interrogator wishes to receive the answer *no*; for he is convinced of the falsity of that about which he inquires. The Latins generally use here, *num*, *numnam*, *numne*, *numquid*, often also, *ecquid*. As these words are negative, *aliquis* cannot follow them, but *quis* or *quisquam*; e.g. *Will a wise man rob another for his own advantage?* *num sapiens spoliabit?* (Ans. *No.*) *Do you think (num putas), that the soul is mortal?* Ans. *non puto.* *Did any one ever praise Nero?* *num quis laudavit?* *Is there any one besides?* *num quis nam praeterea?* *Is there any cause for abandoning our friendship?* *num quid est causae?* *Does any one determine anything against his will?* *num quis quidquam decernit invititus?* *Have you anything to say?* *ecquid habes, quod dicas?* *Is there anything new?* *num quidnam novi?* In indirect questions, *num quis* and *ecquis* signify, *whether any, whether any one*; e.g. *He asked whether there was any farm for sale there,* *num quis fundus isthic venalis sit.*

In double questions, the first with *num*, implies the nega-

tion of what is asked by it, and the second with *an*, the affirmation of the second question.

The interrogatives *numquid* and *ecquid* often signify no more than *num*; e. g. *Do you therefore perceive how this happens?* *ecquid ergo intelligis quomodo hoc fiat?*

Remarks.

332. (1) But the Latins do not always speak so exactly, at least in indirect questions. They often use *num* for *ne*; very often instead of *nonne*, merely the enclitic *ne*, especially with *vidēre* and *scire*, and finally, for *num*, also the indefinite concessive *ne*; e. g. *Do you not see? videsne? for nonne vides? Have you ever seen a world besides this? mundum — unquamne vidisti? for num mundum — ? Tell me whether you will come to Italy, ecquid in Italiā venturi sitis, for in Italiannae. Besides the connexion, the emphasis which is given to the question, makes the meaning sufficiently plain.*

(2) The interrogative *quidni*, *why not?* takes only the subjunctive, as it is a modest and doubting question; e. g. *Quidni possim? why should I not be able?* It forms only an independent question. *Forsitan*, *perhaps*, has also in most cases the subjunctive, which depends upon *an*.

(3) The interrogative *an* always supposes a previous question, or a preceding thought, to which it forms an antithesis; for *an* does not signify *whether*, in a question, but *or*. So *anno*, *or not?* which, however, has often the same signification as *an*. Hence, it can never begin a discourse, but either continues one already begun, or refers to a question conceived in the mind; e. g. *Are the dead in want of the advantages of life? or can he who does not exist, be in want of anything? an potest ille — re ulla carēre? It is in our power, therefore, to remove pain, since, if one wishes, it accommodates itself to the time. Or is there a time to which we do not accommodate ourselves, for the sake of removing suffering? An est ullum tempus? Or is not all fear servitude? An non est omnis metus servitus?* Such questions often denote wonder, or irony, or conjecture. So they are often the same as questions with *num*. Hence in conjectures respecting the cause of something, *an quod* is used.

Cicero does not use this *an* in single indirect questions, nor with the first of two or more questions opposed to each other, consequently not *an — an*, nor even *an — necne*. Therefore, it is not said, *Quaeritur, an hoc verum sit, for hoc verumne sit; neither hoc an verum, an falsum sit, for hoc verum falsumne sit.* And when, in Cic. Catil. II. 6, 13 (according to most of the earlier editions) it is written, *Quaesivi a Catilina, an nocturno conventu — suiset necne, an* must be either erased, or be changed into *in*, according to most of the recent editions. So also the negative *whether not* is not expressed by *anon*, but by *nonne*.

Finally, *vero* is placed with *an*, to strengthen it, and is then rendered *really, indeed, then perhaps*; e. g. *Or do we really doubt that this is so? an vero dubitamus?* Respecting *hanc scio (dubito) an*, see (10) below.

(4) If *an* or *ne* stand in a question that implies a negative answer, *any one* is not expressed by *aliquis*, but by *quis* or *quisquam*; e. g. *Or can any one be angry without distraction of mind?* *an quisquam potest — ? Can what is good prove an evil to any one?* *potestne bonum cuiquam malo esse?*

333. (5) The phrase *nescio quomodo* often stands as an adverb, signifying, *in a manner*, and then has no influence on the mode of the following verb; e. g. *There is, in a manner, a presentiment in our minds, nescio quomodo, in haeret in mentibus augurium.* On the contrary, if it is used in its proper sense, the subjunctive follows; e. g. *I know not how you have endured the injury,* *nescio, quomodo injuriam toleris.* In the same manner, *nescio quis, nescio qui, nescio quid*, signifying *some one, some thing*, are followed by the indicative; these expressions have merely the force of an indefinite pronoun; e. g. *some one is speaking near me,* *prope me nescio quis loquitur = prope me loquitur (aliquis), nescio quis (ille sit).*

6. The pronouns *quis, quid, numquis, numquid, ecquis, ecquid*, often followed by the enclitic *nam*, are the proper interrogatives. But they either stand alone without a substantive, or, if a substantive belongs to them, they take that in the genitive. But when the substantive is added in the same case, *qui, quae, quod; numqui, numquae, numquod; ecqui, ecquae, ecquod*, are used; e. g. *Who said this? quis hoc dixit? What man said this? quis hominum hoc dixit? What act did he commit? quid facinoris or quod facinus commisit? Is there any trace of eloquence visible? numquid vestigii or numquod vestigium eloquentiae appetat? What place in Greece is unknown to you? qui locus Graeciae tibi ignotus est?*

334. (7) In expressions of *wonder, irony and grief*, an accusative with the infinitive frequently occurs, with and without the interrogative *ne*, where we use the nominative; e. g. (*Shall*) *I vanquished give up my purpose? mene victam incepto desistere?* (*Can*) *any one be as unhappy, as I am?* *a deo ne esse hominem infelicem quemquam, ut ego sum?* Instead of the accusative with the infinitive, the conjunction *ut*, with or without the interrogative particle, is also used; e. g. *Would any one prefer a conquered to a victorious country?* *victam ut quisquam victrixi patriae praeferret?* *Will anything dishearten you?* *Will you ever reform?* *Te ut ulla res frangat? tu ut unquam te corrigas?* *Ut* is sometimes also omitted; e. g. *Should I reject this return?* *hunc ego redditum repudiarem?* Finally, when there is no person in the sentence, the infinitive merely is used, as in English; e. g. *Not to know this, that this does not belong here!* *hoc non videre — ! To have seen so much, while the province was in fear!* *tantumne vidisse in metu provinciae!*

(8) Questions expressive of *astonishment and indignation*, as, *Shall not I be able to do what Sulla could?* or, *If Sulla could do this, why not I?* are often formed by inverted sentences, and the second clause is changed into an interrogative one, with or without an interrogative particle; thus, *Sulla or an Sulla potuit, ego non potero?* The last verb is put in the future, as the sense requires, if something which has not yet happened is spoken of,—in the present, when the action relates to the present,—in the perfect, when the action relates to the past; e. g. *Cannot I do what Sulla could?* *Sulla potuit effi-*

cere, ego non possum? Otherwise, the question is expressed according to the usual mode: Si Sulla potuit, cur ego non possim? The English *then*, expressing astonishment, is translated by *ergo*; e. g. Ennius then was permitted to despise the old, but I shall not be, ergo Ennio licuit— mihi non licebit?

(9) The question, *I*? denoting astonishment, and standing alone, is always expressed by *egōne?* and the question of surprise, *Is it so?* is always expressed by *itāne? itane est?* *Vero* or *tandem* is often joined with these for the sake of emphasis; e. g. *Is it then really so? Itane vero? Itane tandem? Is it not true? Is it not so?* are expressed by *nonne?* Finally, where we ask with astonishment, *Do you mean this? Are you serious?* the Latin says, *A i n ' t u?*

(10) *Haud scio an* (more seldom *nescio an*) and the subjunctive of a verb connected with it, is used in making a modest assertion, in expressing a belief of something cautiously, and may be translated by our *perhaps*, without however intimating doubt; e. g. *Perhaps that may be better, or I am inclined to think that may be better, haud scio, an illud melius sit. Perhaps (I am inclined to think) no one is more happy, haud scio, an nemo sit beator.* Hence the first clause is affirmative, the second, negative. For *haud scio, dubito* also is used. Some assert, that *ullus, quisquam, unquam* and *usquam* are also used in a negative sense in this connection, by the better writers, which is not improbable. Finally, the use of *haud scio* (*nescio, dubito*) *an*, in the sense of *perhaps*, belongs only to the classic writers, not to those subsequent to the classic period. When these words have their true signification, viz. *I know not, an* is not used, but *ne*; e. g. *I know not, whether this is so much to be wondered at, id adeo haud scio mirandum-ne sit.*

(11) *Habeo, non habeo, quid, I know not, what—*, is not to be confounded with *habeo aliquid, nihil habeo, quod*. In the former phrase, the clause with *quid* is a dependent interrogative clause; in the latter, *quod* refers to a preceding *aliquid* or *nihil*, and is only a relative. Hence, *I know not what I shall write, or what to write, non habeo, quid scribam. I know (or have) nothing to write, nihil habeo, quod scribam.*

Examples on §§ 315—334.

(1) What is right, is manifest¹; what is expedient², is doubtful. Think³, in what times we have been born. Can the civil law be understood⁴ merely from books? Do you believe, that Epaminondas sighed⁵, when he perceived⁶ that his life was ebbing⁷ together⁸ with his blood? Does every⁹ irregularity⁹ of the mind seem to you insanity? I see, what you demand; but I could wish¹⁰ to know, what advantage these demands¹¹ will bring¹² to you? I write to you less frequently on this account, because I do not know¹³, where you are or where you will be. It is evident what Caesar has in mind¹⁴; but what I think¹⁵ respecting his plan¹⁶, I will

write to you at another time. No one can say where our soul is, or what¹⁷ is its nature. Nature reminds us daily of this, how few and how small things she needs¹⁸. It is of no consequence¹⁹, whether our body rots²⁰ in the earth²¹, or in the air²². It is uncertain, what place will receive you in future. Write to me as soon as possible²³, whether this discourse pleases you. Tell me, whether²⁴ any one has dared to do this. Why do you hasten so much? for I cannot understand²⁵, why you hasten so much. I know not why he thinks, that²⁶ Alexander was not a great commander. It is of much consequence, whether our glory is diminished²⁷, or²⁸ is transferred to another. Shall we prefer wealth, or preferment, or a beautiful form, or health to friendship? It is unjustly doubted, whether wisdom of²⁹ itself alone makes man happy or not. Can we destroy³⁰ the remembrance of the past³¹? It does not depend³² upon³³ ourselves, whether we are acute or dull³⁴, whether we are strong³⁵ or weak³⁶.

¹ apparēre. ² expedire. ³ cogitare. ⁴ cognoscēre. ⁵ ingemescēre. ⁶ sentire. ⁷ effluere. ⁸ una. ⁹ omnis. ¹⁰ velim (could wish). ¹¹ postulatum. ¹² afferre. ¹³ certum habēre. ¹⁴ animus. ¹⁵ sentire. ¹⁶ consilium. ¹⁷ qualis. ¹⁸ egere. ¹⁹ interesse (to be of consequence). ²⁰ putescēre. ²¹ humus. ²² sublime. ²³ quam primum. ²⁴ num. ²⁵ intelligēre. ²⁶ (acc. with inf.). ²⁷ imminuēre. ²⁸ aut. ²⁹ per. ³⁰ delēre. ³¹ res praeteritiae. ³² sto. ³³ in. ³⁴ hebes. ³⁵ valens. ³⁶ imbecillus.

(2) If the criminal¹ says, that² he has erred from³ ignorance, the question⁴ is, whether he could know, or not. It must be carefully⁵ considered⁶, what is wont to spring⁷ from everything. Think⁸, whether in any other way, it can be made more easy. A teacher can easily know, whether his scholars apprehend⁹ quickly or slowly¹⁰ what is taught. Shall I not admire him, shall I not love him? There is a great difference, whether any one opposes^{*} my will, or does not do¹¹ it; whether he takes something from me, or does not give; whether he disappoints¹² our hope, or defers it; whether he acts against us, or for himself; whether from love to another¹³, or from hatred towards us. Does he not fear what will be the issue of that contempt¹⁴ of the laws? Let us first see, whether the world is governed by the foresight of the gods; afterwards, whether they care for the affairs¹⁵ of men. I could wish to know, whether you read this letter with a troubled¹⁶ or a cheerful¹⁷ mind. Those who rely¹⁸ much upon the pity¹⁹ of others, know not how quickly tears become dry²⁰.

¹ reus. ² (acc. with inf.). ³ imprudens (from ignorance). ⁴ quaeritur

(the question is). ⁵diligenter. ⁶considerare. ⁷evenire. ⁸videre. ⁹arripere. ¹⁰tarde. ¹¹obstare. ¹¹deesse (not do to). ¹²praecidere. ¹³alter. ¹⁴contemptio. ¹⁵res. ¹⁶sollicitus. ¹⁷solutus. ¹⁸ponere. ¹⁹misericordia. ²⁰inarescere.

(3) It is uncertain, whether we shall see what we seek¹, or cease to doubt, whether it is expedient to spare one on account of many wicked², or, by the punishment of a single wicked one, to restrain³ the depravity⁴ of many. Shall I be indignaut⁵, if I surpass⁶ one in courtesy⁷? Do you refer⁸ everything to the body, or is there something which delights⁹ you of its own accord¹⁰? Have I taken your patrimony from you, or have you consumed¹¹ it yourself? I have often reflected¹², whether the power of speech¹³ has conferred¹⁴ upon men more good or evil. Ought we not to be most thankful¹⁵ to the man who has so successfully¹⁶ understood¹⁷ the voice of nature, that he leads¹⁸ all the rational¹⁹ in the way of a happy life? I ask you, whether you think, that Homer and Pindar, Phidias and Zeuxis accommodated²⁰ their arts to²¹ pleasure. When any one yields²² to sensual pleasure²³ in secret²⁴, has he a sufficient regard²⁵ for honor? or is it rather something which is disgraceful²⁶ in²⁷ itself, even if no disgrace²⁸ accompanies²⁹ it? Shall³⁰ not our philosophers be able to do that which the Scythian Anacharsis could, viz³¹, to consider³² money of no value³³? Can any orator be found like Demosthenes and Cicero.

¹petere. ²imprōbus. ³coercere. ⁴improbitas. ⁵indignari. ⁶antecedere. ⁷comitas. ⁸referre. ⁹delectare. ¹⁰sua sponte. ¹¹comedere. ¹²co-gitare. ¹³(gerund). ¹⁴afferre. ¹⁵habere gratias (to be thankful). ¹⁶fir-me. ¹⁷comprehendere. ¹⁸deducere. ¹⁹bene sanus. ²⁰dirigere. ²¹ad. ²²parere. ²³libido (sensual pleasure). ²⁴sine teste. ²⁵consulere (to have regard for). ²⁶flagitiōsus. ²⁷per. ²⁸infamia. ²⁹comitari. ³⁰(see § 334. 8). ³¹(omitted in Latin). ³²ducere. ³³pro nihilo (of no value).

(4) Is it not far better to say something respecting¹ these men, than respecting many wise men? Is it in our power², what we remember³? Let us ask Zeno, in what way we can spend our life, if we think⁴ it is indifferent⁵, whether we are healthy⁶ or sick⁷, whether we are free⁸ from pain or are afflicted by it, whether we can keep⁹ off cold or hunger, or not? It is indifferent, whether pleasure consists¹⁰ in those things which are first according to¹¹ nature, or whether it does not consist in these. To¹² begin with¹³ the body, do you not see how¹⁴ men conceal¹⁵ the distorted¹⁶ and mutilated¹⁷ limbs? how they even¹⁸ strive¹⁹ and labor²⁰, that²¹ a defect of the body may either not appear, or appear as little as possible²²?

how, for the sake of curing²³ it, they will endure²⁴ many pains ? Do we not consider many worthy of hatred, who, by a certain attitude²⁵ or movement, seem to have despised²⁶ the law of nature ? Can it indeed be doubtful to any one, that²⁷ virtue is the highest good ? Do you believe²⁸, that²⁹ this befalls³⁰ the wise ? Do you not therefore believe, that sufferings³¹ befall the wise ? I by no means³² believe it. I ask you what you think ? I ? I believe, that there is a providence. This happened by accident. Is it so ? This cannot have happened by accident. Are you serious, said³³ he ?

¹ de. ² potestas. ³ meminisse. ⁴ putare. ⁵ nihil interesse. ⁶ valere. ⁷ aeger. ⁸ vacare. ⁹ propulsare. ¹⁰ esse. ¹¹ secundum. ¹² ut (verb first person singular). ¹³ a. ¹⁴ ut. ¹⁵ occultare. ¹⁶ pravus. ¹⁷ debilitatis. ¹⁸ etiam. ¹⁹ contendere. ²⁰ elaborare. ²¹ ut. ²² quam minimum (as—possible). ²³ curatio. ²⁴ perferre. ²⁵ status. ²⁶ contemnere. ²⁷ quin. ²⁸ (verb at the end ; the question with *ne* ; *this* is the principal word). ²⁹ (aco. with inf.). ³⁰ cadere in aliquem. ³¹ aegritudo. ³² non prorsus. ³³ inquam.

335. ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS.

The answers are either *affirmative* or *negative*.

(a) *Affirmative answers.*

These are not made by the word *immo* (*imo*) by which *yes* is often translated, but :

(1) By *ita, ita est, sic est, sane, etiam, vero* (which can stand here even without a verb) and *certe*; e. g. *Do you wish anything ? Yes, Numquid vis ? Etiam ! Does my brother live here ? Yes, Ita est or est ita. Yes, it is so, sic est. Do you wish me to ask you only the most important ? Yes, if you please, sane, si placet. Have you been often in the schools of the philosophers ? Yes, Vero. Yes, it is as you say, est, ut dicas.* The words *sane, vero, certe* and *profecto*, however, always give a strong affirmative to the question.

336. (2) By repeating that word of the interrogative clause, on which the question particularly depends. This is the most frequent method. Still an affirmative particle, especially the strengthening *vero*, is usually joined to the word that is repeated ; e. g. *Does not the reading of this book delight you ? Yes, Me vero delectat. I wish that you would agree with me in this. Yes, entirely, Prorsus assentior.*

Have you a new edition of this book? Yes, I have, Habeo vero. Do you wish for me? Yes, Mene vis? Te. Did you come here alone? Yes, Solus.

337. (3) Sometimes also, the affirmative word is omitted, and something expressing the wish, meaning or opinion of the one answering, is substituted; e. g. *Is pleasure to be reckoned among the blessings? Yes, and indeed among the greatest! Ac maximis quidem. Do you really mean Plato? Yes, him precisely, Istum ipsum.*

(b) *Negative answers.*

These are made in a manner similar to the affirmative ones:

338. (1) By *non, no, minime, by no means, nequam, neutquam, haud quam*; with the last three a verb is almost always joined. Moreover, there is often connected with all of these, for the sake of emphasis, *hercule, mehercule, sane, vero, etc.* *Vero* in particular, when joined with the above negative particles, although without a negative force itself, expresses our *ah (O) no!* e. g. *Can we always observe this order in placing words? No, Non sane. Do you consider these as orators? O no, I consider them not so much as worthy of the name, Egoverone nomine quidem dignos puto. Do you not believe this? No, by no means, Minime vero.* Where we say: *No, only go on,* the Latin says: *perge vero or tu vero perge,* without negation.

339. (2) By repeating, with a negative particle, that word of the interrogative clause, on which the question particularly depends; e. g. *Is thy brother within? No, Non est. Are you pleased with this oration? No, Non placet or displicet. Did you come here alone? No, Non solus. Does your hand desire anything? No, by no means, Nihil sane.*

340. (3) By the particle *immo (imo)*, particularly when the antithesis of the question is to be expressed, where we

say, on the contrary, no rather. *Vero* is often used here to give emphasis. Hence *immo* does not usually stand alone, but has something joined with it; e. g. *Was Roscius poor? No, he was rich, I m m o locuples erat.* *Was he avaricious? No, he was always in the highest degree generous, I m m o semper liberalissimus fuit.* *Do you certainly not agree with me? No, I wholly agree with you, I m m o prorsus assentior.* *Has therefore utility triumphed over goodness? No, utility was rather the consequence of goodness, I m m o vero honestatem utilitas est consecuta.* *Where was Sulla? at Rome? No, he was far distant, I m m o longe absfuit.*

Nihil vero minus is used in the same sense, followed by a clause, which denotes exactly the opposite of that which the interrogator said; e. g. *Was he at Athens? Surely not, he was at Rome, Nihil vero minus! fuit Romae.*

Examples on §§ 335—340.

Have you heard all, even what I spoke with a low¹ voice? Yes². Have I not long said, that this would happen³? Yes². Does not that still remain⁴, which relates⁵ to nature? Yes⁶, as you say. If you please, let us speak⁷ respecting the first. Yes². Does this man think upon⁸ what he says? By no means⁹. Does death seem to you to be an evil? Certainly⁶. King Tarquin asked the messengers: Have you been sent by the people of Collatia¹⁰ to¹¹ give¹² up yourselves and the people? They answered: Yes¹³. Are the people¹⁴ of Collatia independent¹⁵? Yes¹³. Do they give up their city, fields, temples, everything belonging to gods¹⁶ and men, into my power¹⁷? They answered: Yes¹³. Was Catiline then in the Picene district¹⁸? Surely not¹⁹, for he was at Neapolis. Do you deny, that²⁰ virtue is strong²¹ enough for a happy life? Yes²², entirely so. Is the case²³ a different one? No, precisely the same. Is there protection²⁴ enough in virtue to live happily? Yes²⁵. Did I not wish²⁶ to see you? No, I wished rather not to be seen by you.

¹ summissus (submissus). ² (§ 336). ³ esse. ⁴ restare. ⁵ spectare. ⁶ (§ 335). ⁷ disputare. ⁸ cogitare. ⁹ (§ 338). ¹⁰ Collatinus (of Collatia). ¹¹ ut. ¹² dedere. ¹³ (§ 336). ¹⁴ (singular). ¹⁵ in sua potestate. ¹⁶ divinus (belonging to gods). ¹⁷ ditio. ¹⁸ ager. ¹⁹ (§ 340). ²⁰ (acc. with inf.). ²¹ posse. ²² prorsus (§ 336). ²³ res. ²⁴ praesidium. ²⁵ certe (§ 336). ²⁶ (perf. subj.).

C. *The Imperative.*

341. The *imperative* includes those forms of the verb, by which one desires, asks, or demands something of another, counsels him, forbids, dissuades or seeks to prevent him. Such wishes, commands and prohibitions are either for the nearest *present*, requiring something to be done or not to be done, immediately, or for the *future*, being of a general nature and left to the will of another, to do or not to do something, when the case occurs. The shorter forms are those of the *present*, the longer, those of the *future*. The *present* is confined to a *second* person present; but the *future* refers not only to a *second*, but also to a *third* person absent, who is to do or suffer something future. The forms are, e. g.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Future.</i>
abi	abito
	abitō
abite	abitote
	abeunto

The *first* show, that something should happen immediately; the *second*, that something should happen at some future time. There is nothing more severe or imperative in the last, than in the first.* As the commands and injunctions of the laws relate only to the future, the second forms are more usual in these. So the future imperative is found oftener, when a clause in the future is connected with the command; e. g. *If this shall not happen to you, accuse your injustice, accusatote; praise my courtesy, if I shall not answer you without delay, laudatote. When there is any new and remarkable occurrence, ascertain (investigato) the cause, if you can (si poteris).*

* Some grammarians, however, regard the shorter as the milder form, expressing merely a command of the speaker himself; the longer form as the stronger, expressing, in addition to this, the higher injunctions of duty or law. See Krüger § 464. Ramshorn § 167. Kukner § 8. Reisig § 333.

Further; the Latin says only *scito*, *know*, *scitote*, *know ye*; *memento*, *remember*, *mementote*, *remember ye*; and when Cicero uses *habere* in the sense of *to know*, *to believe*, he says only *habeto*, *habetote*; e.g. *Know so much*, *tantum habeto*; *know this*, *sic habetote*. So also, finally, in the concessive phrase, *Grant that this is so*, *only verum esto!* or merely *esto*, not *sit*.

The request to one or more to do something in common with the speaker, is expressed in Latin by the first person plural of the present subjunctive; e.g. *Let us go away*, *ab eam us*; *let us jest*, *joc emur*.

342. When a person forbids or seeks to prevent anything, the Latin does not use *non*, but the particle *ne*, which is placed before the imperative; e.g. *ne crede*, *ne credito*; *do not go away*, *ne abi*; *ne abito*.

When a new prohibition is joined to a preceding one by *nor*, or when in a clause expressing prohibition, *neither — nor* occurs, *neu* or *neve* is used; e.g. *Let magistrates neither receive a reward nor give one*, *ne capiunto, ne ve danto*. *Let no one (ne quis) put us to shame, neither (ne ve) during his life, nor (ne u) after his death.*

Ne is also used with the persuasive clause, *let us not*; e.g. *Let us not exceed the measure*, *ne modum excedamus*.

The place of the imperative is also supplied:

343. (1) By the subjunctive present, but in the classical period only very seldom,—and hence it is rather to be avoided; e.g. *Go away*, *ab eas*, for *abi*; *let him go away*, *ab eat*, for *abito*; *do you go away*, *abeatis*; *let them go away*, *ab eant*. Here also, in *prohibitions*, *ne* is used; e.g. *Do not go away*, *ne abeas*, *ne abeatis*; *be not superstitious*, *ne sis superstiosus*. In the same manner must the imperatives of impersonal verbs be expressed, the imperatives of these not being used; e.g. *Be ashamed*, *te pudeat*; *vos pudeat*. In *prohibitions*, the subjunctive perfect is also used with *ne*, or with a negative word, as *nihil*; e.g. *Do not do this*, *ne hoc feceris*; *fear nothing from me*, *de me nihil timueris*. Comp. § 242.

(2) The place of the imperative is supplied by the future indicative, as in English, when one leaves his wish to the person with whom he speaks, and hopes that he will comply with it; e. g. *You will be so good as to go there*, instead of, *Be so good*, etc., In cases of *prohibition*, *ne* is not used here, but *non*; e. g. *Continue in health, attend to my business, and with the help of God, look for me before summer*, *valebis—videbis—expectabis*. *Do not delay and polish well the articles you have made, and love us*, *tu non cessabis—perpolies, nosque diliges*.

344. (3) The imperative is also expressed by a periphrasis, and:

(a) In *commands or affirmations*, by *fac* or *velim, ut* and the subjunctive, in which case, however, *ut* is generally omitted, or by *memento* and the infinitive; e. g. *Take care to convince yourself*, or *convince yourself*, *fac (ut) tibi persuadēas, velim tibi persuadēas; remember, be careful to do this, or do this, memento hoc facere; be sure to remember these*, *etiam atque etiam facite, ut ea recordemini*. But where this periphrastic construction is used, the idea is always expressed more strongly. This can be indicated in English by, *be sure, take care, do, etc.* Respecting the periphrastic *facere, ut*, comp. § (541. d.)

(b) In *prohibitions* and *negations*, the imperative is expressed periphrastically, by *fac, ne* and the subjunctive, by *nōti* and the infinitive, which is more frequent than *ne* with the imperative, by *cave, ne*, or without *ne*, and the subjunctive, and by *vide, ne* and the subjunctive. Here, also, with the exception of *nōti*, the prohibitions are expressed more strongly; e. g. *Be careful not to think (do not think) that anything is more true, cave, putas; fear not, nōti verēri; take care (be sure) not to do this, cave, ne id facias; cave, ne id feceris.*

Finally, when an action has already begun, and one wishes it to cease, where we say *no further, no more, no longer, de-*

siste or desine with the infinitive can be used; e. g. Ask no further respecting this, hoc percunctari (percontari) desine (desiste).

Examples on §§ 341—344.

Associate with good men, and avoid the company¹ of the evil. Lie² not, but rather speak the truth³, wherever⁴ you may be. Do ye approach⁵ the gods with purity⁶, show⁷ piety, put away⁸ splendor⁹, do not respect foreign¹⁰ gods, diminish¹¹ expense upon¹² the dead, and neither bury the dead in the city, nor burn¹³ them. Hope not for exemption¹⁴ from the evils¹⁵ of human life. Place¹⁶ this eminent¹⁷ man alone¹⁸ before your eyes, model¹⁹ all which²⁰ you think or do²¹ after²² his pattern²³, take care not to turn²⁴ your eyes to the corrupt²⁵ custom of the multitude, and do not forget, that²⁶ thus you will obtain what you wish* for. Travel²⁷ diligently²⁸ the direct road to glory, and, if anything should entice you to leave it, leave it not; follow only your own judgment and my exhortation. Weep no more, for everything which has happened to you, has happened to you according to the command and will of God. Let him give me my possessions, let him not take²⁹ them from me, let him surrender³⁰ me my goods. Let him who wishes to arrive³¹ where he has determined³², follow³³ only one way, and not wander³⁴ through many. Know, that³⁵ I now write more boldly than before. Be careful to retain the province in the possession³⁶ of the republic. Excuse³⁷ me, that³⁸ I have not written to you recently. Do so³⁹, and love me, and provoke⁴⁰ me by writing something⁴¹. Be sure not to consider⁴² this man among⁴³ your friends. Do not attempt⁴⁴ what is impossible⁴⁵. Doubt no longer, whether this is useful. Doubt not, that⁴⁶ I will do everything. Know⁴⁷ this first, that I am thy most ardent⁴⁸ friend. Believe that I remain⁴⁹ the same, even when you see no one⁵⁰; therefore⁵¹ honor me as a god. If you will listen to me, avoid⁵² animosities. Farewell, and remember⁵³ me ever.

¹ societas. ² mentiri. ³ vera. ⁴ ubicumque (see § 270. b). ⁵ adire. ⁶ cas-te. ⁷ adhibere. ⁸ amovēre. ⁹ opes. ¹⁰ peregrinus. ¹¹ imminuēre. ¹² in-
¹³ comburēre. ¹⁴ immunitas. ¹⁵ malum. ¹⁶ constituēre. ¹⁷ summus.
¹⁸ unus. ¹⁹ fingēre. ²⁰ quicquid (all which). ²¹ agēre. ²² ad. ²³ imago.
²⁴ flectēre. ²⁵ depravatus. ²⁶ (acc. with inf.). * requirēre. ²⁷ ingrēdi.
²⁸ impiger. ²⁹ admire. ³⁰ addicēre. ³¹ pervenire. ³² destinare. ³³ sequi.
³⁴ vagari. ³⁵ (acc. with inf.). ³⁶ potestas. ³⁷ (§ 344). ³⁸ quod. ³⁹ (§ 343,
2). ⁴⁰ laccessēre. ⁴¹ scriptum aliquod. ⁴² referre. ⁴³ in numero. ⁴⁴ tentare.

⁴⁴ effici non posse. ⁴⁶ quin. ⁴⁷ habēre. ⁴⁸ amicissimus. ⁴⁹ esse. ⁵⁰ nul-lus. ⁵¹ quare. ⁵² vitare (§ 343, 2). ⁵³ meminisse.

INFINITIVE AND GERUNDS.

345. The English and Latin infinitives, present and perfect, are used in both languages, not only as subjects or predicates, but also as objects of the principal verb in the sentence.

(1) As subjects, they are the principal word on which the verb of the sentence depends, and as predicates, they refer to other definite subjects, and in both these relations, they are in the nominative; e. g. *To die for one's country* (i. e. death for one's country) is sweet and honorable, *pro patria mori*, where *mori* is the subject of the verb, and therefore in the nominative, and stands in the place of *mors*. So, *To be without pain* (*nihil dolere*, freedom from pain) is found (inest) only in pleasure. *The business of the poets was to sing the praises of heroes*, *herōum laudes canere*. *To paint seems more pleasing to an artist, than to have painted*, *pingere quam pinxisse*. In these sentences the infinitives are the subjects of the verbs. And so in the sentence, *To learn is nothing else than to remember*, *nihil aliud est discere*, *nisi recordari*, *discere* is the subject, and *recordari* the predicate.

346. Such an infinitive can also be often translated into English by a noun, as the examples show; e. g. *Reverence for the gods*, *cole-re deos*; *indulgence to his enemies*, *par-cere inimicis*; *remembrance of the past*, *meminisse praeteritorum or praeterita*; *the use of life*, *uti vita*. In such sentences, the personal pronouns must be used instead of the possessive; e. g. *My preservation*, *me conservare*; *our protection*, *nos tu-er-i*. So must every adjective be expressed in Latin by an adverb, because the infinitive retains the nature of the verb; e. g. *A happy life*, *beate vivere*; *an honorable death*, *gloriose (honeste) mori*;

such a use, it a uti; a more just mode of thinking, a equius sentire.

347. (2) An infinitive can also stand as the object of another verb, and is therefore its accusative ; e. g. *Many despise the very idea of being conquered, multi i p s u m v i n c i contemnunt. Some think it low to prefer money to friendship, pecuniam p r a e f e r r e amicitiae.* Here the infinitives are the objects of the principal verbs, and take the place of accusatives.

All infinitives which are joined to a large class of verbs, to complete the imperfect ideas expressed by these verbs alone, may be considered as such objects. Here belong verbs denoting, *to wish, to be able, ought* (*debēre*), *to be accustomed, to begin, to continue, to cease, etc.*; e. g. *No one can divine this, divinare; I ought* (*debeo*) *to alleviate thy pain, levare.* Most of these verbs admit the full construction of the accusative and the infinitive, or a conjunction with the verb in the subjunctive ; e. g. *I wish to be loved by all, volo ab omnibus a m a r i or me ab omnibus a m a r i.*

When an infinitive, used to complete the idea of another verb, has a predicate which refers to the subject of the principal verb, then such predicate is in the nominative, because both verbs have the same person for their subject. But when the accusative with the infinitive occurs, the predicate is in the accusative ; e. g. *We prefer to be beloved, car i esse malūmus; I must be more brief, debo esse b r e v i o r; I desire to be compassionate, cupio, me esse clementem.*

HISTORICAL INFINITIVE.

348. In the animated description of actions, following each other in quick succession, or of a restless and irresolute state of mind, the best Latin writers very often use the present infinitive active and passive, for a definite person of the imperfect or the narrative present. With this infinitive, however the subject is in the nominative, and the infinitive does not have a governing word on which it depends ; e. g. *A part (pars) mount (ascendere) their horses, and go against the enemy; the combat (pugna) becomes more like a highway*

robbery, than a battle; horsemen and footmen mixed together, here cut down (caedere), there hewn in pieces (obtruncare); surround many (circumvenire) from behind. Henceforth Jugurtha trusted (credere) no man, nor place, nor time, feared (metuere) countrymen and enemies alike, looked round suspiciously (circumspectare) at everything and trembled (pavescere) at every sound, now rested (requiescere), now starting from sleep raised (facere) an alarm. In such cases as the above, this may be imitated, since it is the most forcible representation of actions which are capable and worthy of being represented to the senses. Historians frequently employ it for this purpose.

GERUNDS.

349. The present infinitive active, e. g. *amare*, is used in Latin, not merely as the subject of a sentence, and as the object of another verb, e. g. *Litteras amare laudi ducitur* or *laudi ducimus*, but it also has its peculiar forms, when it occurs in other relations, in that of the genitive, dative, accusative (depending upon a preposition) and ablative. Thus it is a kind of verbal substantive. The declension of the infinitive, the oblique cases of which are called gerunds, is as follows; e. g. Nom. *amare*, Gen. *amandi*, Dat. *amando*, Acc. *amare*, or with a preposition, *amandum*, Abl. *amando*. The governing word alone determines the cases of the gerunds. That word may be a substantive, adjective, verb or preposition.

The use of the gerunds is as follows :

I. *The Genitive.*

350. As the genitive of a substantive is a dependent case, so also is that of the gerunds. It can be used, therefore, only
 (1) When it depends upon a substantive; e. g. *The art of loving*, *ars amandi*; *the power of speaking*, *facultas loquendi* (*dicendi*).

A genitive stands in a similar connection after *voluntas*, *occasio*, *spes*, *consuetudo*, *studium*, *causa* (a cause), *libido*, *metus*. Also *causa* and *gratia*, signifying *on account of*, *for the sake of*, take the genitive of a gerund dependent upon them. Then the gerund is placed before *causa* and *gratia*; e. g. *For the sake of driving*, *vehendi causa*; *for the sake of sleeping*, *dormiendo causa*.

351. The phrases, *finem facere*, *to make an end*, and *modum facere*, *to place a limit*, take the genitive only, not the dative; e. g. *I will cease writing*, *scribendi*; *I cease to speak*, *loquendi finem facio*. So, *causam dare*, *afferre*; *ansam dare*, *to give an occasion for something*, *to occasion something*.

352. The phrase, *tempus est*, has the nominative or the genitive, according to its different significations. When *tempus est* signifies, *there is leisure, nothing prevents*, and therefore is the same as *otium est*, *vacat*, it takes the genitive; e. g. *I have no time to reply to these*, *non est mihi tempus ad haec respondendi*; *you certainly have time to tarry here a little*, *certe tibi tempus est paululum hic commorandi*. But when it has the sense of, *the time is fit, is convenient, one can, must*, it takes the usual infinitive, as the nominative; e. g. *Now is the time to speak respecting this affair*, *nunc tempus est de hac re dicere*; *it is not now time to feast sumptuously*, *nunc non est tempus magnifice epulari*. When the subject is definite, the accusative with the infinitive is used here; e. g. *It is time, that we should now think* (we must now —), *respecting that unending life*, *tempus est*, *nos de illa perpetua vita jam cogitare*. But when *tempus est* has an adjective, as *idoneum*, *alienum*, or the like, the genitive of the gerund is used with *tempus*; e. g. *It is now an unsuitable time for me to dispute with you*, *nunc alienum tempus est mihi tecum expostulandi*.

353. (2) An adjective also can govern the genitive of the infinitive. Such adjectives have been mentioned above, §§ 150—152; e. g. *Eager to learn*, *studiosus discendi*; *skilful in singing*, *peritus canendi*.

354. The genitive of the gerund governs the same case as its verb; e. g. *Poncer to crush the people*, *populum opprimendi*; *desire to destroy all cities*, *omnes urbes diruendi*; *the wish to spare the enemy*, *hostibus parcendi*; *the hope of taking the camp of the enemy*, *potundi castris hostium*. Yet when the gerund governs an accusative, the Latins usually prefer, instead of the gerund, the verbal adjective in *andus* or *endus*, in which case the construction is changed, and the accusative becomes a genitive; e. g. *Populi* (for *populum*) *opprimendi*; *omnium urbium diruendarum*. See respecting this, § 365.

II. *The Dative.*

355. The dative of a gerund, like the dative of a substan-

tive, expresses the *object* and *purpose* for which anything happens or is done. It depends :

(1) Upon adjectives, such as have been specified above, §§ 163—167 ; very few of them, however, are of such a nature as to take a verb after them ; most of them also require the preposition *ad* to follow them ; e. g. *Antony was very much addicted to drinking*, *potando erat deditissimus* ; *the season of the year is suitable for sowing*, *idonēum est serendo*.

356. (2) The dative depends upon some verbs, which govern the dative, with the idea of *to* or *for* something. Thus, e. g. *esse* without an adjective, in the sense of, *to be fit or able for something*, *to be in a condition to* ; e. g. *I can pay*, *sum solvendo* ; *I can* (*I am in a condition to*) *bear*, *sum ferendo*. It is also said further : *studere** *alicui*, *to engage in something* ; *op̄ram dare alicui rei*, *to bestow labor on something*, *to strive for*, *to give attention to* ; *aliquid in sumere alicui*, *to expend or bestow something upon something* ; *praeficere*, *praeponere*, *to place over something* ; *praeesse alicui*, *to be placed over something* ; and so similar verbs; hence, *To give attention to writing*, *operam scribendo dare* ; *to place some one over the planting*, *aliquem serendo praeponere*. Especially is it often used with verbs signifying, *to choose*, *to announce*, to denote for what the *choice* or *announcement* is made ; e. g. *I choose this place for myself to rest*, *requiescendo* ; *assemblies of the people were announced to choose censors*, *censores creando* (*censoribus creandis*). Hence, this often occurs in abridged phrases with a noun denoting the office of the magistrate ; e. g. *Triumvir republicae constituenda*, *for*

* In Cicero, the verb *studere* rarely occurs with the dative of the gerund or verbal adjective ; when it does not govern these, it takes only the infinitive, except when other datives of substantives precede ; e. g. *Cui gloriae, cui virtuti studes ? patrimonione augendo ?* Cic. Orat. II. 55, 225.

rem publicam constituendo, a triumvir for regulating the state.

This dative of the gerund rarely governs an accusative, for where the gerund would govern an accusative, it is changed to a verbal adjective, and the accusative, on account of the change of construction, passes into the dative; e. g. *for operam do littēras scribēndo*, the usual construction is, *littēris scribēndis*. See on this, § 365.

III. *The Accusative.*

357. The accusative of the gerund with the ending *andum* and *endum*, is used only when a preposition precedes it; only *ad* and *inter*, however, are found here; *ad* signifying *for*, *to, in order to*; *inter*, *while, during*; e. g. *Man is born for reflection and action, homo ad intelligendum et agendum natus est; even a short life is long enough to live happily, ad beate vivendum; Duilius laid hold of the ships of the enemy with iron hands, during the battle, inter pugnandum.*

With this case of the gerund, the accusative is very rarely joined as a dependent case, but is rather the principal word, and the gerund becomes a verbal adjective merely, and must agree with the noun; e. g. *To conciliate the gods, ad deos placando*, *for ad deos placandum*. Comp. on this, § 365.

When the gerund governs a dative or an ablative, it is contrary to Latin usage to place these words directly after *ad*; e. g. *To enjoy pleasure, not ad voluptatibus fruendum, but ad fruendum voluntatibus; to use time wisely, not ad tempore sapienter utendum, but ad sapienter tempore utendum; not ad hostibus parcendum, but ad parcendum hostibus; not ad metu animum liberandum, but ad animum metu liberandum; not ad procul Roma vitam degendam, but ad vitam procul Roma degendam.* So also with *inter*, and the prepositions governing the ablative.

Finally, *that not, in order that not*, cannot be translated by *ad non* and the gerund, but only by *ne*, because *non* only *denies*, and does not *prevent*; e. g. *We will be silent respecting this, that we may not increase the pain, ne augemus dolorem, not ad dolorem non augendum.*

IV. *The Ablative.*

358. The ablative of the gerund stands, sometimes with, and sometimes without a preposition. The preposition is omitted, when the gerund denotes the *instrument* and *cause*; otherwise the prepositions *a, de, ex, in, cum* and *pro* are used.

Examples: *By doing nothing, men learn to do evil, nihil agendo; I derive much pleasure from learning, ex discendo; moderation must be observed in jesting, in jocando; Plato has said much respecting the manner of living well and happily, de bene beateque vivendo.*

The accusative of a noun is joined to this ablative of the gerund, only when the object denoted by the accusative is to be made prominent or emphatic; otherwise it is, in most cases, put in the ablative, and the gerund becomes a verbal adjective; e. g. *By suffering lighter pains, doloribus levioribus perferendis, instead of dolores leviores perferendo.* Comp. § 365.

Examples on §§ 345—358.

(In the following examples, the gerund is not to be changed into the verbal adjective).

Philosophizing¹ displeases some, and these too² not very³ unlearned. Each is an error, both⁴ to believe all and to believe no one. I wish to hear what you do not approve⁵. Wisdom is the art of living happily. Economy is the art of avoiding⁶ unnecessary⁷ expenses⁸, or the art of using one's property⁹ savingly¹⁰. Avarice is the desire¹¹ to increase¹² one's wealth excessively¹³. The night time is more suitable for sleeping, than for working. The memory is strengthened¹⁴ by exercise and getting by heart¹⁵. In learning, begin¹⁶ with¹⁷ the easiest¹⁸. Learn early¹⁹ the art of living happily. Never neglect²⁰ an opportunity of accomplishing²¹ anything useful. A hundred hands are scarcely sufficient²² to prepare²³ what each one needs²⁴ daily. It is easy for any one to show²⁵ why you especially²⁶ ought²⁷ not to grieve²⁸. When we are wearied by standing or walking²⁹, let us sit³⁰ down upon the ground³¹. Men resemble³² the gods in nothing more than in making men happy³³. To be an upright³⁴ man is always useful. Is it not better³⁵ to be a dumb³⁶ man, than to be eloquent for the injury of others?

¹ philosophari. ² et is quidem (and — too). ³ admōdum. ⁴ et — et (both — and). ⁵ probare. ⁶ vitare. ⁷ supervacanēus. ⁸ sumptus. ⁹ res familiaris. ¹⁰ moderate. ¹¹ libido. ¹² augēre. ¹³ praeter mōdum. ¹⁴ augēre. ¹⁵ ediscēre. ¹⁶ ordiri. ¹⁷ ab. ¹⁸ (plural). ¹⁹ matūre. ²⁰ praetermittēre. ²¹ exsēqui. ²² sufficēre. ²³ (dative of gerund). ²⁴ indigēre. ²⁵ docēre. ²⁶ praecipūe. ²⁷ debēre. ²⁸ dolēre. ²⁹ ire. ³⁰ considēre. ³¹ humus. ³² propius accedēre (to resemble more). ³³ salūtem dare. ³⁴ bonus. ³⁵ satius. ³⁶ mutus.

(2) The mind of man is nourished by learning and thinking¹. I do this for the sake of not grieving² thy father. Who is there, who has not at some time³ put a limit⁴ to his grief⁵? Many know⁶ not, how⁷ important⁸ true friends are to a good and happy life. No one can have a just cause to take⁹ arms against his country. Men are accustomed to judge us according to the society in which we are. A rich miser¹⁰ is like a man who owns a horse, but does not know¹¹ how* to ride. It is shameful to do a wrong to others; but far more shameful to be ungrateful to those who have bestowed¹² favors upon us. To strive¹³ for learning and to consider¹⁴ all other things insignificant¹⁵, are divine gifts. If our life has fallen¹⁶ among the weapons¹⁷ of robbers, every expedient¹⁸ for promoting¹⁹ safety is honorable. Pirates²⁰ wandered²¹ about, scattered²² over the whole sea, when the direction²³ of the maritime war was given to Pompey. When the people judge²⁴, they are generally²⁵ not guided²⁶ by wisdom to²⁷ judge prudently. The drop²⁸ hollows²⁹ the stone, not by force, but by falling³⁰ often. Rhetoric is the art of speaking well; but only the orator knows³¹ how³² to speak well. My brother is afraid³³ of marrying³⁴.

¹cogitare. ²dolore afficere. ³aliquando. ⁴modum facere. ⁵lugere.
⁶nesciunt esse. ⁷quid. ⁸valere. ⁹capere. ¹⁰avarus. ¹¹noscere. * (omitted in Latin). ¹²praestare. ¹³studere. ¹⁴ducere. ¹⁵levis. ¹⁶incidere in aliquid. ¹⁷telum. ¹⁸ratio. ¹⁹expedire. ²⁰praedo maritimus. ²¹vagari. ²²dispersus. ²³gerere. ²⁴judicare. ²⁵plerumque. ²⁶ducere. ²⁷ad. ²⁸gutta. ²⁹cavare. ³⁰cadere. ³¹scire. ³²(omitted in Latin). ³³abhorre ab aliqua re. ³⁴uxorem ducere.

(3) It is our duty to be true to our friends. It is most painful¹ for a man to live despised² by others. If to live is pleasant, to whom can it be pleasant to have lived? Thou hast not injured³ me by praising⁴ my ancestors. The fishing boats⁵ furnished⁶ a refuge⁷ and safety to many who were skilled⁸ in swimming. They spent⁹ the following day in burying those slain¹⁰ in battle, on both sides¹¹. Everything which¹² was suitable¹³ to feed¹⁴ the fire, we collected¹⁵ into one place. Alexander who was wearied¹⁶ by following¹⁷ Darius far, returned to the tent of his friends, when he had no hope of overtaking¹⁸ him. By watching¹⁹, by activity²⁰ and by wise²¹ counsel²², everything succeeds²³ well²⁴. A short period is sufficiently long, even for a good and virtuous²⁵ life²⁶. By such a life, you will effect²⁷, that²⁸ every one will favor you. Nothing can be less pleasing to God, than that the way is not open²⁹ to all to³⁰ worship³¹ him.

¹acerbus. ²contemptus. ³corrumpere. ⁴laudare. ⁵navis piscatoria.
⁶afferre. ⁷effugium. ⁸peritus. ⁹consumere. ¹⁰caesus. ¹¹utrimque
 (on — sides). ¹²quicquid (every — which). ¹³aptus. ¹⁴alere. ¹⁵con-
 gerere in locum. ¹⁶fatigatus. ¹⁷persequi. ¹⁸consuequi. ¹⁹vigilare.
²⁰agere. ²¹bene. ²²consulere. ²³cedere. ²⁴prospere. ²⁵honestus. ²⁶vi-
 vere. ²⁷consuequi. ²⁸ut. ²⁹patere. ³⁰(gerund). ³¹colere.

THE VERBAL ADJECTIVE IN *ANDUS* AND *ENDUS*.

359. The verbal adjective, e. g. *amandus*, *legendus*, has much resemblance to the forms of the gerund. But the resemblance is not merely in form, but also in sense; and, therefore, the gerund and verbal adjective can be exchanged for each other. The verbal adjective, commonly called the *future passive participle*, or the *gerundive*, contains no definite time, but only shows, that something *happens* or *is to happen*, and, when it is connected with a substantive in one of the oblique cases, and consequently another verb is the principal one, the verbal adjective denotes only an action *contemporary* or *continuing while* something else happens, has happened, or will happen; e. g. *I am pleased when I read your letters*, *in reading your letters*, *litteris legendis delector*. *I have been pleased, when I read your letters*, or *in reading*, *litteris legendis delectatus sum*. *I shall be pleased when I read your letters*, *litteris legendis delectabor*. Therefore it has reference to *all* relations of time. Instead of it, in all the above examples, *litteras tuas legens* might have been used.

360. Those verbs which govern an *accusative* are the only ones which properly have this verbal adjective; but also the deponent verbs *fruor*, *utor*, *fungor* and *potior* have, in the best Latin writers, the verbal adjectives *fruendus*, *utendus*, *fungendus*, *potiundus*; the first of these especially, is very often used by Cicero. On the contrary, those verbs which govern any other case than the accusative, e. g. the *dative*, have only the *neuter singular* of the verbal adjective, which is used impersonally, e. g. from *parco* comes only *parcendum*, which, however, can be used, only when it is joined with *est*,

erat, etc. without a subject, signifying, *it must be spared*, *he*, *we*, etc. *must spare*. So also *moriendum est*, *he*, *we*, etc. *must die*; *eundum*, *currendum*, *equitandum est* and others.

This verbal adjective, therefore, has two special significations. First, it contains the idea of *necessity*, *obligation* and the *being worthy*; second, the idea of a *continuing* or *contemporary* action considered passively, in which case it is used in place of the gerund.

1. *The verbal adjective containing the idea of necessity, obligation and being worthy.*

361. Verbal adjectives, therefore, contain the idea of *necessity*, which we express in different ways; e. g. *a mandus*, *one who must be loved*, *deserving to be loved*, *worthy to be loved* or *of love*. In other sentences, this may be rendered by, *to be necessary*, *to need*, *to require* and the like, followed by the passive. The verbal adjective is used in this sense:

(a) When it qualifies a substantive; e. g. *Wisdom is the knowledge of the things which are to be sought and avoided* (*which must be sought*, etc.), *rerum expectendarum fugiendarumque*.

362. (b) When it is the *subordinate predicate*, either of a *subject* connected with a passive verb, or of an *object* connected with an active one. As predicate of the subject, it is in the *nominative*, as predicate of the object, in the *accusative*. This predicate shows *what* is to happen to it, or for *what purpose* or with *what design* something is done to the *subject* or *object*. We express this in English by the preposition *to* and the *infinitive active* or *passive*, or by *for* and a substantive; e. g. *The house is given to them to plunder*, or *to be plundered*, *domus iis diripienda*; *Antony gives them the house to plunder* (*for plunder*), *domum diripiendam dat*. *Romulus and Remus were given up to some slaves to expose*,

exponendi; Amulus gave Romulus and Remus to some slaves to expose, exponendos. I have many things to do (which must be done), multa facienda habeo. Have you nothing to learn? nihilne habes discendum? I have received these for use (profit), haec utenda accepi. Such predicates are used principally with the verbs *to give, to commit to, to undertake, to send, to have* and the like.

363. (c) It stands with the verb *esse*, as the predicate of a subject, and with *esse* forms a complete conjugation, which is called the *passive periphrastic conjugation*; e. g. *amandus, a, um sum, I must be loved, I am to be loved, deserve to be loved.* The following particulars should here be noticed :

(1) When the verb is used without any definite subject, the verbal adjective is put in the neuter; e. g. *moriendum est, confitendum est.* This neuter must always be used, when the verb governs a *dative* or *ablative*, which cases we generally translate into English by the *nominative* and a *passive* verb, or by an *active* verb, using our indefinite *we* or *one* as the subject; e. g. *The citizens must be helped, we must help the citizens, civibus subveniendum est; the city must be spared, urbi parendum est; reason must be used, ratione utendum est.*

These datives and ablatives cannot be changed into the nominative and become the subjects of the sentence, (Comp. § 220). On the contrary, every *accusative*, which is governed by an active verb in Latin, can become a *nominative*, as the subject of the verb; e. g. *The innocent must be defended, innocens defendendus est, for innocentem defendendum est*, which the best Latin writers very seldom use. For an example of the accusative, see Cicero de Senectute, at the close of chapter II.

364. (2) But when the person is specified, *by whom* something is to be done or must be done, which in English is denoted by the use of the passive and the preposition *by*, then the dative is generally used, and the preposition *a* but seldom.

Yet *a* is sometimes used when there is still another *personal dative* connected with the verb, since two personal datives would make the sentence ambiguous; sometimes too, when it is desirable to make the person particularly emphatic; e. g. *I must be esteemed by you, tibi diligendus sum; our parents must be esteemed by us, parentes nobis diligendi sunt; the townsmen must be aided by us, oppidanis nobis subveniendum est, for nobis alone; for whom you must consult, quibus est a vobis consulendum; I think that he should be recompensed even by me, ei etiam a me referendam gratiam puto; my cause must be managed by the consuls, a consulibus mea causa suscipienda est.*

These datives, as above remarked, we generally express by the nominative; e. g. *I must love my father, mihi (a me) pater amandus; you must shun sensual pleasure, tibi (a te) voluptas fugienda est; our father must love us, patri (a patre) amandi sumus.* So, *I must die, mihi moriendum est; men must die, hominibus moriendum est.*

2. The verbal adjective containing the idea of a continuing action, and used instead of a gerund.

365. It has already been seen above, § 359, that the verbal adjective denotes also a *contemporary, continuing* action, during the time of which something else takes place, has taken place, or will take place. Hence, it is used instead of the gerund almost entirely, where the gerund would govern an accusative. This is only changing the active idea into the passive.

Hence, according to the usage of the ancients, it may be a general rule in writing Latin, to put the verbal adjective instead of every gerund which governs the accusative of a substantive or personal pronoun. By this change, the substantive or pronoun before dependent upon the gerund, is made to depend upon that word which determined the case of the

gerund, consequently upon another substantive, adjective, verb or a preposition ; on the contrary, the verbal adjective is treated as an adjective, and agrees with its substantive, since it qualifies it.

The following examples will show this in all the cases :

Gen. *The art of reading a book,*

Ars libri legendi.

— *The art of writing a letter,*

Ars epistolae scribendae.

— *The hope respecting actions to be accomplished,*

Spes rerum gerendarum.

Dat. *Fit to sharpen the mind,*

Aptus ingenio acuendo.

— *Necessary for healing the wounds,*

Opus vulneribus curandis.

Acc. *To write a letter,*

Ad epistolam scribendam, or

Ad litteras scribendas.

— *For the purpose of carrying on wars,*

Ad bella gerenda.

Abl. *On despising glory,*

De gloria contemnenda.

— *Respecting the interchange of captives,*

De captivis commutandis.

— *In choosing the manner of living,*

In genere vitae deligendo.

— *In choosing friends,*

In amicis eligendis.

— *By enduring every toil,*

Omnibus labore tolerando.

— *By praising my ancestors,*

Laudandis majoribus meis.

Remarks.

366. (1) The verbal adjective is not used instead of the gerund,

when the accusative, which stands with the genitive, dative and ablative of the gerund, is an adjective in the neuter plural (e. g. *vera, omnia*) or a neuter pronoun singular or plural, because in that case the neuter could no longer be distinguished by the form; for *hujus videndi causa* would rather designate a *hunc* than *hoc*; it would signify *for the sake of seeing him*, not *for the sake of seeing this*. The same is true, therefore, of the words *vera, falsa, futura, multa, plura, omnia, hoc, hacc, id, ea, illud, illa, aliquid*, and others similar,—which are connected only with the gerund; e. g. *The skill to distinguish the true from the false, scientia vera a falsis diagnoscendi, not verorum . . . diagnoscendorum; the desire to learn this, hoc (haec) discendi, not hujus discendi or horum discendorum; the art of conducting his own affairs, sua administrandi, not suorum administrandorum*. But the nominative and accusative form an exception, and admit the verbal adjective, because in these cases the neuter can be distinguished from the masculine; e. g. *All things must be explained, omnia sunt explicanda; to distinguish what is true, ad vera dignoscenda*. The verbal adjective can be employed with the other cases also, when a *quae* indicating the neuter follows it; e. g. *To prepare everything which —, omnibus parandi, quae —*.

Adjectives in the singular also form an exception, because the neuter singular is considered and used in all respects as a substantive; e. g. *The desire of finding the truth, veri inveniendi, instead of verum inveniendi*.

367. (2) Sometimes the verbal adjective is not used instead of the gerund, when an unpleasant sound would be produced by too many similar endings, e. g. *orum* and *arum*. Thus, there are not many expressions in Cicero similar to *novorum favorum fingendorum causa*, except that he says, Fin. I. 10, *majorum dolorum effugientorum gratia*, because he had before said *majorum voluptatum adipiscendarum*, and Cat. I. 3, 7. *tuorum consiliorum reprimendorum causa*, on account of the preceding *sui conservandi*. In other cases, he softens such forms by introducing words of a different ending.

368. (3) When the ablative stands by itself without a preposition, the gerund occurs as frequently with an accusative, as the verbal adjective with its noun in the ablative; e. g. *Fratrem laudando, by praising my brother*, instead of *fratre laudando; injuriis ferendo, by enduring injuries*, for *injuriis ferendis*. But though Cicero says, Fin. V. 23, 67, *Justitia cernitur in suo cuique tribuendo*, he expresses himself more distinctly, De Off. I. 5. 14, by *in tribuendo suum cuique*, and Brut. 21, *in suum cuique tribuendo*.

369. (4) By this verbal adjective, many English substantives are expressed, because the verb generally denotes the idea more naturally and clearly than substantives; indeed it is often the case also, that the Latin has no substantive which expresses this idea; e. g. *In storming the city, in urbe oppugnanda; in the choice of friends, in amicis eligendis*. Comp. § 464. Here it is to be remarked:

370. (a) That the substantive which stands in connection with the verbal adjective, is the principal one, and that the verbal adjective must agree with it. The case of the substantive is determined by the nature of the sentence; e. g. *Brutus devised the plan of restoring*

the freedom of Rome, consilium libertatis Romanae restituenda e. Here the principal word is *consilium* which governs the genitive. *He attended to everything which was necessary for healing the wound* (the wounds); here the words *for healing* are expressed either with the dative or with *ad*, hence either *vulnēri* (*vulneribus*) *sanando* (*sanandis*), or *ad vulnus* (*vulnēra*) *sanandum* (*sananda*).

(b) Every English adjective agreeing with a substantive expressed in Latin by the verbal adjective, is always translated into Latin by an adverb; e. g. *Wisdom is necessary for the wise administration of the republic*, *ad rempublicam sapienter administrandam*.

371. (5) When the English here employs a substantive, and the possessive pronouns, *my, thy, his, their* qualify it, these must be expressed in Latin by the personal pronouns; e. g. *For my preservation*, *ad me conservandum* (*conservandam*); *for our preservation*, *ad nos conservandos* (*conservandas*).

372. (6) The Latin does not join the verbal adjective to the genitives *nostri, vestri, sui* (of several) in the genitive plural, but only in the singular; e. g. *For the sake of inciting us* (*you, themselves*), *nostri* (*vestri, sui*) *adhortandi causa*, not *adhortandorum*, or instead of that, *nos* (*vos, se*) *hortandi causa*.

(7) Finally, the genitive of the gerund, as a *genitive of quality*, is used in connection with *esse*; e. g. *regium imperium, quod initio conservandae libertatis atque augendae reipublicae fuerat*—, properly, *which had been of such a nature, that it preserved liberty*, i. e. *which had served to preserve liberty*.

The remark made above § 357 that *ad non* with the accusative is not used for *ne*, is important here also, as well as what was said respecting the false position of some words directly after the preposition.

Examples on §§ 359—372.

(1) Every man must avoid the suspicion of ostentation. Those men are not to be listened¹ to, who believe that one must be angry at his enemies. Such praises are among the most suitable to command and embellish² old age. Cicero united himself with Pompey for the preservation of the state against Caesar. When the emperor Diocletian perceived³, that⁴ he was not suitable⁵ to manage⁶ the government, he returned to private life. In the first book of the Tusculan questions⁷, Cicero treats⁸ of despising⁹ death,—in the second, of enduring¹⁰ pain,—in the third, of mitigating¹¹ sorrow¹²,—in the fourth, of the other passions¹³, and of calming¹⁴ them,—in the fifth, that¹⁵ the virtue of a happy life is contented with itself. Agriculture is particularly¹⁶ praised by Xenophon, in the book, which treats¹⁷ of the management¹⁸ of household affairs¹⁹; indeed²⁰, nothing seemed to him so prince-

ly²¹ as the employment²² of agriculture²³. Summer and autumn are designed²⁴ for cutting²⁵ and gathering²⁶ the fruits. The highest²⁷ branches of the tree must be stript²⁸ off, for the sake of checking²⁹ its luxuriance, and only³⁰ here and there one must be kept, to renovate³¹ the tree. Alexander must now yield³² to the circumstances of the time³³, and must pardon his soldiers; then he must abandon³⁴ the hope of crossing³⁵ the Indian stream. In breaking³⁶ horses, the masters must observe many rules. Men must early³⁷ learn the art of using³⁸ time, and an opportunity of accomplishing³⁹ something valuable must never be omitted⁴⁰. Send the letter back to me, which I sent to you to read. In straining⁴¹ the voice, the whole body is exerted⁴². Verres and others participated⁴³ in plundering⁴⁴ the inheritance of Hercules.

¹ audire. ² ornare. ³ sentire. ⁴ (acc. with inf.). ⁵ idonēus. ⁶ moderari. ⁷ disputatio. ⁸ disserēre. ⁹ contemnēre. ¹⁰ tolerare. ¹¹ lenire. ¹² aegritudo. ¹³ animi perturbatio. ¹⁴ sedare. ¹⁵ (acc. with inf.). ¹⁶ copiōe. ¹⁷ esse. ¹⁸ tuēri. ¹⁹ res familiaris. ²⁰ quin. ²¹ regalis. ²² studium. ²³ agrum colēre. ²⁴ destinatus. ²⁵ demetēre. ²⁶ percipēre. ²⁷ summus. ²⁸ defringēre. ²⁹ comprimēre. ³⁰ nec nisi. ³¹ renovare. ³² cedēre. ³³ tempora (exig.—times). ³⁴ abiecēre. ³⁵ transire aliquid. ³⁶ domare. ³⁷ mature. ³⁸ uti. ³⁹ exsequi. ⁴⁰ praetermittēre. ⁴¹ profundēre. ⁴² contendēre. ⁴³ participem esse alicujus. ⁴⁴ dirīpēre.

(2) Those must be considered brave and magnanimous men, who strive¹ for true glory and to avert² all injustice. Every means of promoting³ one's safety is honorable⁴. Lysanias was present⁵ at the writing of the resolution⁶. When time and necessity require it, we must fight with our hands, and prefer⁷ death to servitude⁸ and disgrace⁹. There are some¹⁰ sports¹¹ which are suitable¹² to sharpen¹³ the intellect¹⁴ of children. In the expulsion¹⁵ of the kings, Collatinus was the partner¹⁶ and the assistant¹⁷ of Brutus' plans¹⁸. Tarquin went to Rome, chiefly from a desire and hope of greater honor, for the acquisition¹⁹ of which he had no means²⁰ at Tarquinii. Reflection²¹ is employed²² chiefly in search²³ of truth²⁴. There exists²⁵ in our minds, for the endurance²⁶ of pain and the meeting²⁷ of dangers, a firm and fixed²⁸ contempt of pain and death. Courage²⁹ is seen³⁰ in the endurance of hardships³¹; temperance, in the neglect³² of pleasures; wisdom, in the choice³³ of good and evil, and justice in giving³⁴ to every one his own. For our common³⁵ cheerfulness³⁶ and instruction³⁷, nature has implanted³⁸ in our minds a desire³⁹ for society⁴⁰. We despair of your recall⁴¹ to your country, since many venerable men oppose you. We see

that man was born for the preservation and protection⁴² of men. We must consult⁴³ for friends, just as⁴⁴ for ourselves.

¹ studere. ² propulsare. ³ expedire. ⁴ honestus. ⁵ adesse alicui. ⁶ decretum. ⁷ anteponere. ⁸ servitus. ⁹ turpitudo. ¹⁰ nonnullus. ¹¹ lusus. ¹² habilis. ¹³ acuere. ¹⁴ ingenium. ¹⁵ expellere. ¹⁶ socius. ¹⁷ adjutor. ¹⁸ consilium. ¹⁹ adipisci. ²⁰ facultas. ²¹ cogitatio. ²² versari in aliqua re. ²³ exquirere. ²⁴ verum. ²⁵ inesse. ²⁶ perpēti. ²⁷ adire. ²⁸ stabilis. ²⁹ fortitudo. ³⁰ cerni in. ³¹ labor. ³² praetermittere. ³³ deligere. ³⁴ tribuere. ³⁵ communis. ³⁶ exhilarare. ³⁷ docere. ³⁸ ingignere. ³⁹ appetitus. ⁴⁰ (genitive). ⁴¹ revocare. ⁴² tueri. ⁴³ consulere. ⁴⁴ non minus (just as).

(3) When Caesar marched to Spain, he gave Italy to Anthony to devastate¹. Tarquin insisted², that³ the comitia should be held⁴ as soon as possible⁵ for the choice⁶ of a king. The Furies often ascend⁷ from the lower world⁸ to excite war, to⁹ scatter¹⁰ discord among the people, and to destroy¹¹ peace. All the rest¹² of the booty was given to the soldiers to plunder¹³. The timid¹⁴ youth committed themselves to Scipio for protection¹⁵. Every life is a kind of slavery¹⁶; therefore, we must accustom¹⁷ ourselves to our situation¹⁸, we must complain¹⁹ of it as little as possible²⁰, and seize²¹ every advantage²². No one must either grieve²³ on account of the injury of the people, or rejoice on account of their honors, that he may not pass²⁴ an unquiet²⁵ life. Nothing contributes²⁶ more to our happiness²⁷ than virtue and wisdom. The consul Sulpicius assigned²⁸ to Amynander the Aetolians, to arouse²⁹ them to war. Many, although they bestow³⁰ much care in purchasing³¹ things unimportant³², are negligent in the choice³³ of friends, since they do not know³⁴, how valuable³⁵ true friends are to a useful and happy life³⁶. Amulius gave to his slaves the children born of Rhea Silvia, to throw³⁷ them into the Tiber. The soldiers of Caesar gave³⁸ the enemy no opportunity³⁹ to collect. Caesar sent Caecina to the river Amisia to disperse⁴⁰ the enemy. It was the report, that⁴¹ a third army was prepared to guard the frontiers. The shepherd Faustulus brought the children of Rhea Silvia to his wife to educate⁴². The whole value⁴³ of philosophy consists⁴⁴ in the preparation⁴⁵ for a happy life⁴⁶; for we all are inflamed⁴⁷ with a desire for⁴⁸ a happy life⁴⁹.

¹ vastare. ² instare. ³ nt. ⁴ facere. ⁵ quam primum. ⁶ creare. ⁷ exire. ⁸ inferorum loci. ⁹ ad. ¹⁰ dividere. ¹¹ lacerare. ¹² reliquus. ¹³ diripere. ¹⁴ pavidus. ¹⁵ custodire. ¹⁶ servitium. ¹⁷ assuescere. ¹⁸ conditio. ¹⁹ queri. ²⁰ quam minimum. ²¹ servire. ²² commodum. ²³ dolere. ²⁴ agere. ²⁵ inquietus. ²⁶ conferre. ²⁷ beare. ²⁸ attribuere. ²⁹ excitare. ³⁰ collocare.

³¹ em̄ere. ³² exilis. ³³ diliḡere. ³⁴ nescium esse. ³⁵ val̄ere. ³⁶ viv̄ere.
³⁷ mitt̄ere. ³⁸ relinqūere. ³⁹ facultas. ⁴⁰ distrah̄ere (fut. part. in dative).
⁴¹ (acc. with inf.). ⁴² educare. ⁴³ auctoritas. ⁴⁴ consist̄ere. ⁴⁵ comparare.
⁴⁶ vita. ⁴⁷ incensus. ⁴⁸ (genitive). ⁴⁹ viv̄ere.

THE CONJUNCTION THAT.*

373. As the English conjunction *that* has several significations, it would be natural to suppose, that the Latin, which speaks so definitely and distinctly, would have more than a single word with which to express the force of this conjunction.

The Latin expresses himself differently, according to the different relation denoted by the word *that*. He uses, especially in affirmative sentences, the conjunction *ut* or *quod*, or the accusative with the infinitive, and in negative sentences for the English *that not*, *ut non*, *ne*, *quod non*, *quin*, and the accusative with the infinitive and the adverb *non*.

As everything depends upon the thought contained in *that*, the student should learn, first of all, to distinguish its different relations and significations, and then he can translate the conjunction. The following ideas are denoted by it :

374. (1) *It expresses motive, purpose or design.*

When the word *that* denotes a *motive, purpose, or design, why or for which* another action is undertaken, or has been undertaken, or, moreover, is not to be undertaken, the Latin uses *ut* in affirmative and *ne* in negative sentences, or, when the negation is to be made stronger, *ut ne, that not*. Something is to be done, and the question is asked, *For what purpose one does (did) this? For what purpose this happens (hap-*

* This includes the construction of dependent sentences introduced by the conjunctions *ut, ne, quo, quominus* and *quod*, as well as the construction of the accusative and the infinitive. It will be seen by the sequel, however, that other words are frequently used in these constructions instead of *that*, especially in expressing a *purpose or command*, either positive or negative.

pemed)? *What object one has (had) in view?* Hence *ideo*, *on this account*, *eo consilio*, *with this design*, often precede and refer to the following clause.

Instead of *that*, we also use *in order that*, *in order to*, *to, for the purpose of*. *In order (that) the (more, etc.), in order (that) thereby* is always expressed by *quo* instead of *ut eo*.

In negative sentences, the idea of *preventing*, *averting*, is contained; one wishes that something may not happen, which in English is sometimes expressed by *lest* and *from*. The Latins use the subjunctive with *ne* in such phrases as the following: *I do not wish to live*, *ne vivam*; *I do not wish to be safe*, *ne sim salvus*; and in the phrase, *I will not say, or not to say*, when something stronger than was said before follows *ne dicam*.

Examples.

Laws are made that the citizens may live quietly and happily, *ut — vivant*. *Show the wanderer the way, that he may not fall into dangers*, *ne — incidat*. *Wars must be undertaken on this account, that we may live in peace without injury*, — *ut vivatur*. *I keep silence, that I may not increase thy pain*, *ne augeam*. *Many wish to be assisted, not that they may not be debased, but that they may rise higher*, *non ut ne affligantur, sed ut — ascendant*.

375. When, in such dependent clauses, the word *not* is contained in a negative word, e. g. *no one, nothing, never, nowhere* and the like, the preventive *ne* and affirmative Latin words are employed; e. g. *That no one, ne quis, quisquam, ullus*; *that nothing, ne quid, quidquam*; *that never, ne unquam*; *that nowhere, ne usquam*; seldom otherwise. Further: *And that not is expressed by neve; that neither — nor, by ut neve — nere, or ut ne aut — aut, or merely ne aut — aut.* In some few places also, *ut neque — neque occurs.*

376. (2) *That denoting a wish, care, labor and effort.*

When in the word *that*, an implied, not expressed *wish, desire, care, labor and effort* is contained, that something

may happen, or *may not happen*, *ne* or *ut ne* is used in negative sentences, and *ut* in affirmative ones. The question is here asked: *What does he wish? For what is he anxious?* Here also something is to happen, or not to happen, and there is therefore an intentional effort or exertion.

Such sentences are formed by the verbs, *to wish, not to wish, to prefer, to care for, to desire*, and by the nouns *wish, will, desire*, also by *to strive* (*op̄ram dare*), *to be anxious*, etc.; in short, by every word or clause which is a motive or ground for action.

Words with this construction are *volo, malo, nolo, opto, cupio, contendo, nitor, laboro, curo, consulō, prospicio, operam do, id ago, ficio, efficio, perficio, evinco, pervinco, impetro, assequor, consequor, adipiscor, caveo* and *video* (to take care), *consilium capio, animum or in animum induco*. Comp. on *caveo* and *video*, §§ 407, 408.

Negative sentences, here also, contain the idea of *preventing, averting*, as before, § 374, and all which was said under §§ 374 and 375 is also applicable here. Hence, when *facere* has *ne* with it, it signifies *to take care that something may not happen, to prevent something*.

The verb *studere, to strive*, has *ut* after it, when the subject of both verbs is *different*, but merely the infinitive, when their subject is the same. Comp. § 396. For the use of the words *velle, nolle, malle, and cupere* without *ut* or with the Acc. and Inf., see § 395.

Examples.

I wish (velim) that your brother would write to me soon, ut — scribat. Take care to (that you) recover your health, ut — convalescas. Take care, that I may know it, permit me to know it, fac, ut sciam. Take care, that he may not hear it, do not let him hear it, fac, ne audiat. I wish that your brother would not associate with this man, ne hoc homine utatur. This science aims at this, that we may assent to no one without reason, and that we may never be deceived, ne cui falso assentiamur, ne ve unquam falliamur. Care must be taken, that we do nothing imprudently and carelessly (ut) ne quid — agamus.

377. (3) When an expressed *wish*, *request*, *incitement* or *command* is stated, *ut* is also used in affirmative sentences, and *ne* in negative ones.

Sentences of this kind may be called *imperative* ones, because, as principal sentences, they must be stated in the imperative without the conjunction *that*; e. g. *I told him to read Cicero*, i. e. *read Cicero*.

These sentences are formed by *verba dicendi*, i. e. by such as *signify*, *to wish*, *to ask*, *to demand*, *to incite*, *to counsel*, *to persuade*, *to command*, *to entrust*, *to write* and the like. Here also belongs *ita*, *on condition*, *with the command*, *injunction*. So also after such words as *law*, *duty*, and every word or clause, which contains the idea of a *command* or *prohibition*, *ut* or *ne* is used.

Such verbs are: *rogo*, *oro*, *postulo*, *posco*, *flagito*, *moneo*, *admoneo*, *hortor*, *suadeo*, *persuaderem*, *moveo*, *excito*, *impello*, *imp̄ro*, *edico*, *mando*, *praescribo*, *praecipio*, *censeo* (to decree), *statuo*, *instituo*, *constituuo*, *decerno*, *cogo*, *dico*, *praedico*, *scribo* (when it implies a command), *placet*; *lex*, *jus*, *munus*, *conditio*. For the omission of *ut* with many of these verbs, see § 392.

The words *jubere*, *to command*, and *vetare*, *to forbid*, however, form a particular exception here, inasmuch as they are followed almost exclusively by the accusative with the infinitive, not by *ut* and *ne*. So Cicero usually constructs *imperare* with *ut* in active sentences, but with the accusative and the infinitive in passive sentences; e. g. *Verres commanded them to receive the tithes*, *ut accipient*. *The same commanded them to be led to prison*, *eos abduci*; seldom *ut* in passive sentences. This accusative is also used, when the passive periphrastic conjugation is employed, because this contains in itself the idea of *should*, *ought*, consequently the force of *ut* with the subjunctive. For the construction of *sinere*, *pati*, *permittēre* and *concedēre*, see § 397; of *postulare*, *mōnere*, *admonēre* and *persuadēre* with the Acc. and Inf., see § 396.

In negative sentences, a *prohibition* is always contained; hence *ne* can be used, and instead of it *ut ne*, but only in

making a *request*, and not in a strict prohibition. With *interdicere*, *to forbid*, *to prohibit*, the Latin mostly uses *ne*, seldom *ut*. The remarks made § 375, are applicable here also.

Examples.

I wish (velim) that you would come (*I wish you to come*) *as soon as possible*, *ut — venias*. *Quintilian advises that we should (us to) read Cicero*, *ut — legamus*. *Solon commanded, that no one should destroy the graves*, *ne quis — deleret*. *I request that you would (you to) spare expense in nothing*, *ne sumptui parcas ulli in re*. *Themistocles advised the Athenians to leave the city*, *ut — relinquērent*. *Caesar has written to me that I should (to) prepare everything*, *ut — pararem*. *I have been forbidden to do this*, *ne hoc facerem*, not *ut hoc facerem*.

378. (4) *That denoting result or effect.*

When in the word *that*, the result or effect of a past action or a condition, or of a property or quality of something is expressed, *ut* is used in *affirmative* sentences, and *ut non*, not *ne* or *ut ne*, in *negative* ones. It is here asked, *What happens, has happened, will happen? What is the result, consequence?*

Such sentences are indicated by various words; e. g. by *so, so very, such a, of such a kind or nature, so far*, and all which are qualified by *so*. Further; by *it happens, it comes to pass, it is the custom*, and others, of which the sentences denoting the result are the subjects. Finally after a *comparative* with *than*, where, however, *ut* is also sometimes omitted. *So that the (more, etc.)* is expressed by *ut eo*, not by *quo*. Comp. § 374.

Examples.

The essence of law consists in this (*est ea*), *that it commands to do right and forbids to do wrong*, *ut jubeat vetetque*. *Many are of such a nature* (*tales*), *that they do not*

*distinguish between the true and the false, ut — non discer-
nant. The leaders of the army are so inhuman, that I trem-
ble in view of their victory, ut — horream. This seems to be
too high for us to understand, quam ut — possimus. Zeno
preferred to bear all, rather than to inform against his accom-
plices, quam — indicaret, instead of quam ut indicaret.*

The following words have this construction : *facio, efficio, committo, (to go so far as to), est (it happens, is the case, is possible), fit, factum est, futurum esse or fore, multum and tantum abest, prope est, in eo sum, accidit, incidit, evenit, occurrit, contingit, abest (is not the case), nas-
citur, mos, consuetudo est, relinquitur, reliquum est, restat, superstes, extremum est, proximum est, tempus est, ita, sic, eo, adeo, usque eo, tam,
tantopere, talis, is, hic, iste, eiusmodi, tamen.* Comp. on *relinquitur*
sqq. § 390, on *fore* § 403, and on *tantum abest* § 410.

379. (5) *That denoting conclusion.*

When the word *that* denotes a conclusion drawn from something previously stated, *ut* is used in affirmative sentences, and *ut non*, not *ne* or *ut ne*, in negative ones.

Before such a sentence in English, stands either the word *so*, or the phrase, *it follows from this*. Words introducing a conclusion are : *sequitur, relinquitur, efficitur, consequens est, probo, efficio* (to make out, to prove). Respecting *sequitur, relinquitur, and efficitur*, comp. § 397.

Examples.

*Sisenna is so childish in his narrations, that he does not seem to have been thoroughly instructed, ut — non videatur.
It follows from this, that he was not killed by him, ut non sit occisus. Cicero has omitted nothing, so that he seems to have devoted his leisure wholly to the interest of the orator, ut — videatur.*

380. (6) *That denoting the object of a verbum sentiendi or dicendi, and of all clauses containing general statements.*

(a) When a sentence with *that* contains the object of a *verbum sentiendi*, or of a *verbum dicendi* narrating something, the Latins use the accusative with the infinitive.

Verba sentiendi include all words which relate to an operation of the mind or the senses ; e. g. *to believe, to think, to perceive, to hope, to observe, to see, to hear; belief, opinion, hope; certain, true, probable, evident, etc.*

Such words are : *audio, video, sentio, puto, reor, judico, animadverte, cognosco, intelligo, percipio, disco, scio, credo, duco, statuo, memini, recordor, ob/ivisior, spero, fucio* (to admit), *fac* (admit, suppose, grant), *efficio* (to infer, to conclude), *opinio, spes est.*

Verba dicendi (or *declarandi*) include all words which relate to discourse, whether written or spoken ; e. g. *to say, to answer, to write, to announce; report, message, etc.* These, however, must contain only the idea of a narration and information, but not a request, a demand, a command, where *ut* would be used, or a prohibition, where *ne* would be used. Comp. on these last, § 377.

Such verbs are ; *dico, trado, prodo, scribo, refero, nuntio, confirmo, nego, ostendo, demonstro, perhibeo, promitto, polliceor, spondeo, indico, doceo* (to inform), *probo, efficio* (to prove).

When therefore such sentences with *that*, denote what some one *believed, hoped, saw, heard, related, wrote*, or what is to him *credible, known, true*, or what was the *report, the rumor and the like*, they form the objects of a *verbum sentiendi* or *dicendi*, and the Latin expresses them by the accusative with the infinitive ; e. g. *I hear (you say), that you are reading, have read, are about to read, would read, would have read Cicero, audio (dicas) te Ciceronem legere, legisse, lecturum esse, lecturum fuisse.* Here the clause, *that you* — denotes the object,—*what I hear, what you say, therefore the object of a verbum sentiendi or dicendi.*

The question is here asked : *What does one perceive ? What is thought or related ?*

381. Such a sentence, in reference to the *verbum sentiendi* or *dicendi*, is either its *object* (genitive or accusative), or its *subject* (nominative). So in the above example, *I hear (you say), that you are reading Cicero*, this last clause is the *object* or the *accusative* of *I hear*, or of *you say* ; for it denotes

*what I hear, and what you say ; and in the example, He received information, that the city had been taken, nuntium urbem esse captam, the last clause is the object of the substantive *nuntium*, consequently the genitive. On the contrary, when I say, It is known that you read Cicero, notum est te Ciceronem legere, then the clause *that*— is the subject of *it is known*, notum est. Hence the clause containing the accusative with the infinitive, is the subject or nominative, when the principal clause has no subject ; it is the object (genitive or accusative), when there is already a subject, but the object of the governing verb, substantive or adjective, is wanting. It is the subject therefore in such phrases as : *est notum, credibile, verum, auditum, nuntiatum, apparet, constat*, etc. ; but the object in such phrases as : *audio, putamus, pater dixit, ille ignarus est, fama fuit*, etc.*

382. (b) The Latins also commonly form, by means of the accusative with the infinitive, all *general sentences*, i. e. such as do not describe a single action occurring at a definite time, if these sentences are subjects of another sentence, even although the principal sentences do not contain a *verbum sentiendi* or *dicendi*, but only remarks of various import in the neuter ; e. g. *It is expedient that the captives should be restored, captivos reddi; it is an innate principle with all that there is a God, Deum esse; it is a disgrace that a Roman citizen should be bound, civem Romanum vinciri*. Here belong also such sentences as the following : *To be irascible (iracundum esse) is something different from being angry (iratum); to be unacquainted (rudem) with history, is censurable; it is the duty of a good citizen to love (amorem esse) his country*. In these clauses, the accusative aliquem, that some one, is omitted.

Such neuter or impersonal phrases are : *par, fas, aequum, justum, rectum, utile est, necesse, opus est, licet, expedit, convenit, pulchrum est, apparet, constat, certum, manifestum, perspicuum, verum, verisimile est*. Comp. § 397.

383. The word *that*, as the examples show, is omitted in Latin with the accusative and the infinitive, and the subject of the sentence, *I, thou, he*, or any other *definite person or thing* is put in the accusative, and the verb in the infinitive of the proper tense ; e. g. *That I hear, have heard, shall (should) hear, shall (should) have heard, me audire, audisse, auditum (am) esse, auditum (am) fuisse; that we are heard, have been heard, shall be heard, nos audiiri, auditos (a s) esse, auditum iri.*

Esse is very generally omitted with the future infinitive. When *would be able*, and *would have been able* are to be expressed by an infinitive of *possum*, the former is rendered by *posse* and the latter by *potuisse*, or both are expressed periphrastically by *fore, ut* according to § 403. The subject of the infinitive cannot ordinarily be omitted.

384. Intermediate clauses expressing *comparison*, where the clause of comparison contains no new verb, take, in Latin, the accusative as a continuation of what precedes ; and so all sentences, which continue the predicate of the preceding sentence, take the accusative ; e. g. *You see that nothing is so like death, as sleep, nihil esse, nisi somnum (not somnus).* *Do not say that he (istum) has done the same, as Cicero, quod Ciceronem.* *I suppose that you (te) are excited by the same circumstances, by which I myself am, quibus me ipsum.* *I know that man was born for action, as the horse for running, and the ox for ploughing, ut ad cursum equum, ad arandum bovem.* So in such clauses as, *I believe you also, I believe Cicero also,—abridged for I believe that you also—the verb for which is to be supplied from the preceding clause; hence puto etiam te, puto etiam Ciceronem, not tu—Cicero.* But if the predicate is changed and a new verb introduced, this accusative cannot be used ; e. g. *Quis credit, tantum esse solem, quantum videtur, Who can believe that the sun is as small as it ap-*

pears. Here the introduction of *videtur* requires a subject in the nominative.

385. With *verba sentiendi* and *dicendi*, there is very frequently joined a superfluous *this* (*hoc*, *id*), *that* (*illud*), *so* (*ita*, *sic*). Care must be taken not to be misled by these to use *quod* or *ut*, unless the clause with *that* refers to these words alone, and depends upon them; e. g. *I think this first, that friendship is the highest good, hoc primum sentio, a misericordia sumnum bonum esse. I think so* (am of the opinion), *that our soul cannot be mortal, sic sentio, non posse animum nostrum esse mortalem. So ita est credibile, mundum hominum causa creatum esse. Cicero says very frequently, sic existimare, sic habere*, etc.

After *credo*, *mihi crede* and *puto*, the objective clause belonging to them, is frequently not put in the accusative with the infinitive, as dependent on them, but is made independent, as often in English; e. g. *Believe me, one year — will bring, mihi crede, unus annus — afficeret, for unum annum — allatum esse*.

Memini, recordor, memoria teneo are regularly followed by the infinitive *present*, if something is mentioned, which still continued to exist, at the time that it was called to mind; e. g. *I recollect that you were pursuing the study of law from a very early period of your life, te studere memini*; but if something is mentioned, which was already completed at the time of recollection, the infinitive *perfect* must be used; e. g. *Philip remembered that the Ætolians injured his fame, when he was liberating Greece, ob trectasse meminerat*.

386. Finally, care should be taken, not to put every clause, following a *verbum dicendi*, in the accusative with the infinitive, even if it begin with *that*. *Verba dicendi* do not always denote what happens, has happened or will happen, but often something which *should happen*, and then they have the idea of *command*, which requires *ut*. Comp. § 377.

A comparison of examples will show the difference; e. g. *I wrote to my father that my brother would come to me in the morning, meum fratrem venturum*. Here I narrate something.

I wrote to my father that my brother should come to me in the morning, ut frater veniret. Here I ask for something, as it were command something, viz. that he should come. Who has persuaded you of this, that he is your friend? *hunc tibi esse amicum?* A narrative sentence. Who persuaded you to this, that you should assent (to assent) to him? *ut huic assentirere*. An imperative sentence.

Who has told you, that I am transcribing this book? me hunc librum describere? A narrative sentence. Who told you, that you should transcribe (to transcribe) this book? *ut hunc librum describeres?* An imperative sentence.

387. (7) *That denoting the cause of an action.*

When a sentence with *that* contains not only an action now happening, that has happened, or is yet to happen, but also, at the same time, the *reason* or *cause* of something that is asserted, then the Latin has *two* modes of expression, either the accusative with the infinitive, or the conjunction *quod* (*that*, *because*, *because that*) ; e. g. *I am much rejoiced, that you are happy*, *te hilari animo esse*, *valde me juvat*; *I am much rejoiced, that you have come*, *quod venisti*, *valde me juvat*. The former, therefore, could have been expressed by *quod es*, and the latter by *te venisse*. With the accusative and the infinitive, the idea of *perceiving*, *noticing* (with joy, grief, wonder and the like), is prominent, with *quod*, the *reason why* is made emphatic.

This principle prevails with many substantives, adjectives and verbs, particularly with such as denote a *state of the mind*, *praise*, *blame*, *accusation*, *apology*, *thanks*, *congratulation*, *consolation*, *pardon* and *boasting*. After these, sometimes the thing itself, as something *narrated* or *perceived*, is made prominent by the accusative with the infinitive, sometimes the *cause*, by *quod*. With different verbs, however, sometimes one construction is more frequent, sometimes the other.

With verbs expressing *joy*, *sorrow*, *astonishment*, *displeasure* and *boasting*, the accusative with the infinitive oftener occurs. Such verbs are *gaudeo*, *laetor*, *dolco*, *indignor*, *queror*, *miror*, *glorior*, *angor*. Here belong also *jucundum*, *moleustum est*, *animo aequo (iniquo)*, *graviter*, *moleste*, *aegre ferre*, etc.

On the contrary, *quod* oftener occurs with words expressing *praise*, *blame*, *accusation*, *calumniating*, *reproaching*, *apology*, *pardon*, *repentance*, *complaint*, *thanks*, *congratulation*, *consolation*, *anger* and *pity*; e. g. *laudo*, *vitupero*, *reprehendo*, *accuso*, *gratulor*. Here belong also *facere bene*, *prudenter*, etc., *fit*, *evenit*, *cadit*, *accidit bene*, *male*, *commode*, *percommode*, *perincommode*; when these are used, the clause containing *that* shows why anything is *bene*, etc. Comp. § 388.

Examples.

I rejoice much that my book is approved by you, libram meum a te probari. The countrymen are not sorry, that summer has come, aestatem venisse. We do not wonder that you rejoice, te laetari. It was wonderful to me, that you had changed your resolution, te mutasse. You do well, that you assist me, quod me adjuvas. He finds fault with old age, because (that) it enjoys no pleasure, quod careat. Pardon me, that I write so much to you, quod ad te scribo tam multum. I believe that he himself must regret, that he has abandoned his purpose, ipsi poenitendum (esse) puto, quod — decesserit.

388. (8) *That in periphrastic explanations.*

It has been remarked (§ 381) that, when the subject or object of a *verbum sentiendi* or *dicendi* is expressed peripherastically by a clause with *that*, the accusative with the infinitive is almost always used. The verbs above mentioned, § 387, are here excepted.

But sentences without a *verbum sentiendi* or *dicendi* also have a periphrastic clause with *that* for their subject or object. Respecting such sentences, it is to be noticed:

(a) When they specify *general ideas*, and not real actions now taking place, or that have taken place, they are put only in the accusative with the infinitive, according to § 382.

(b) When they contain *single actual facts* and supply the place of the subject-nominative, they are stated in almost all cases by *quod*; e. g. *That I am at Rome, excites suspicion among many*, quod Romae sum —. *This foolish act, that (quod) he gave himself up to the king, seems sagely devised.* *Hoc, id, illud, res, haec res, ea res* often stand in the principal clause, for the sake of clearer reference to this periphrastic subject; e. g. *Between me and you, there is this difference, that —, hoc interest, quod —.* *This circumstance shows this, that, hoc res declarat, quod —.* *This one circumstance pains me, that I have not followed him, haec una res me torquet, quod non eum secutus sim.*

(c) When these single facts supply the place of oblique cases, and, as explanations, refer to an expressed or implied *eo, ex eo (hoc), ex hac re, hinc, pro eo, in eo, de eo, ad id, praec-*

ter *id* and the like, *quod* is almost exclusively used. So after *praeter quam* and *nisi*, with such sentences as belong here; e. g. *Friendship surpasses all blessings in this (h o c), that (quod) it —.* *The truth of this doctrine is manifest from this (ex eo), that (quod) —.* *The manor pleases me, except that (nisi quod) it has involved me in debt.*

So also only *quod* follows *adde* and *adjice, add to; mittere, omittere, praeterire, to waive, to pass by.*

(d) Finally, when the sentence with *that* stands almost wholly by itself and independent of the nearest principal clause, and denotes for the most part a subject alluded to by another, upon which some observation is to be made, the Latins use *quod*, which we translate *in respect to this that, in respect to;* e. g. *in respect to your wishing my advice, it is such —, quod meum consilium exquiris, id est tale. In respect to your exhorting me, I wish that it may be of such a nature —, quod me hortaris, id velim sit ejusmodi.* In letters and conversation, nothing is more frequent.

389. The following table will give a general view of the different sentences, and of the usage with each, whether affirmative or negative.

<i>Sentences.</i>		<i>That.</i>	<i>That not.</i>
1. Purpose, design,	ut,		ne, ut ne; and that not, neve.
2. Wish, care, effort,	ut,		ne, ut ne; and that not, neve.
3. Request, command,	ut,		ne; and that not, neve.
4. Result, effect,	ut,		ut non; where the principal sentence is negative, also quin.
5. Conclusion.	ut,		ut non.
6. Object of a verb sum sentienti- di or dicendi, and clauses containing general statements,	Acc. with inf.		Acc. and inf. with non; where the principal sentence is negative, also quin.
7. Cause, reason,	quod, or the acc. with inf.	quod non, or acc. and inf. with non.	
8. Circumstance and explanation.	the same, quod more frequently.	the same.	

Some Additional Remarks.

390. (1) From what has been said thus far, from § 374—380, it is evident, that the right translation of the conjunction *that* depends particularly upon the *idea* contained in the sentence beginning with *that*, and therefore upon the relation and connection of that sentence with the principal one. Hence *ut* does not always follow *sic*, *ita*, when the sentence with *that* does not depend upon them; nor does *quod* always follow *id*, *hoc*, *illud*; nor does the accusative with the infinitive always follow the *verba dicendi*. Only the idea which is to be expressed, can determine the construction. Therefore, when Cicero says, *This is evident, that we have been born for action*, it is expressed by, *hoc appareat*, *nos ad agendum esse natos*, for the last clause is connected with *apparet*, therefore not *quod nati sumus*, although *hoc* precedes. But when he says, *This is evident from this fact, that we have been born for action*, it is expressed by *quod nati sumus*, because the clause with *that* explains the word *this* more clearly. *You had written me, that you wished it might prove fortunate, that I had bought this house, ad me scripseras, velle te bene evenire, quod hanc domum emissem*; *ut* could not stand here instead of *quod* merely because of *evenire*, for the clause with *quod* does not depend upon, but is rather the subject of, *evenire*, inasmuch as the sentence does not denote a consequence, but only the circumstance of buying the house. *It appeared very wonderful to me, that you went away, illud mihi permixtum accidit te a bisse*; where neither *illud* nor *accidit*, but *permixtum* is the governing word.

After the phrases, *it remains, relinquitur, restat, reliquum est*; *the last thing is, extremum est*; *the next thing is, proximum est*; *the principal thing is, the main point is, caput est*, *ut* is used, because the sentence contains either a *wish* or a *request*, and the above phrases signify only, *as for the rest, finally, principally*; e. g. *It still remains that I should console you, reliquum est, ut te consoler*; *it remains that, or the last thing is, that I entreat you, extremum est, ut te orem*; *the principal thing is, that you must think, caput est, ut tibi cogitandum sit*.

391. (2) We often omit the conjunction *that*, and, especially where the verbs of both sentences have the same subject, employ the infinitive. Hence one must not be hasty in translating, but must think of the possible omission of the conjunction *that*. The following examples will show this: *I believed I was, thou wast, he was sick* (that I, thou, he was sick). *He said the soul was immortal. Strive to do everything orderly. God commands us to act uprightly. The laws forbid men to defraud others. Wisely employ time for the purpose of becoming intelligent. I see the wood burn (or burning). I hear the thunder roll. I perceive death approach (or approaching).*

392. In like manner, the Latin sometimes omits *ut* with verbs which according to §§ 376 and 377, would naturally require it after them. Especially is this the case after *velim*, *fac*, *monere* and the like, which form imperative sentences. But *ne* can never be omitted here, nor can *non* be placed with the subjunctive merely. Examples: *I wish you would persuade yourself, velim tibi persuadeas. Take care to have (that you have), fac, habeas. I had told my son to read the book and give*

it to you, dixeram, leḡret et daret. Cicero commanded the ambassadors to visit the others, praecepit, ceteros adirent.

393. (3) Sentences with *that*, after some verbs, can be translated differently, i. e. *ut, quod*, or the accusative with the infinitive may be used. Here belong:

(a) *Verba of joy, grief, complaint, displeasure, wonder, consolation, and others which denote a perception or a verbal expression, but at the same time give a reason.* Respecting these, comp. § 387.

394. (b) The verb *accedit*, *it is added, moreover*, takes not only *quod*, which is properly its periphrastic subject (see § 388, b), but also *ut*; e. g. *It was added (the circumstance) that he was blind, or moreover he, etc., accedebat, ut caecus esset.* Cic. Cato, 6. And so several times in Cicero. There is however a difference between the two constructions: the additional circumstance introduced by *quod* is presupposed as a known fact; introduced by *ut*, it is represented as new or as yet unknown.

396. (c) The verbs *to wish* (*velle*), *not to wish* (*nolle*), *to prefer* (*malere*), *to desire* (*cupere*), when the sentence with *that* has a different subject, e. g. *I wish, that you —*, are followed either by *ut* or the accusative with the infinitive;* e. g. *I am unwilling that this error should be forced from me, nolo mihi hunc errorem extorqueri, or ut mihi hic error extorqueatur.*

Yet after the expressions *velim* and *vellem* (*I could wish that —*) *nolim* and *nollem*, *malim* and *mallem*, the accusative with the infinitive is but seldom used, but either *ut*, or, what is still more common, the subjunctive without *ut*; e. g. *I could wish that you would write to him, velim, ei perscribas. I could wish you had been present, vellem, adfuisse.*

396. But when the subject is the same in both clauses, e. g. *I wish, that I*, either the infinitive alone is used, or (as is often the case in Cicero) an accusative with the infinitive, especially when the subject is to be made prominent. By this construction the idea becomes more distinct and full; e. g. *We wish to be beneficent (that we may be beneficent), benefici esse volumus, or nos esse beneficos volumus. I do not wish to be preferred, nolo praeferri, or me praeferri. Many wish to be considered Greeks rather than Romans, multi Graeci magis, quam Rounani haber i volunt, or multi se Graecos, magis quam Romanos haber i volunt. I would prefer to be an old man, se ne x esse mallem, or me senem esse mallem.*

So studere, which otherwise takes the infinitive, only where the subject of both verbs is the same (see § 376), is followed by the accusative with the infinitive, when a *wish* or *inward desire* is signified; e. g. *I wish to be acceptable to all, gratum me omnibus videri studeo. The accusative with the infinitive is also sometimes used instead of *ut*, even when the subjects of the two verbs are different; e. g. I earnestly desired that the disagreement should be healed in the bud, studebam, dissensionem nascentem extinguui. The accusative with the infinitive occurs also with *postulare*, in the sense of *to claim to be something, to presume, pretend*; e. g. *I presume to know, postulo me scire, whereas postulo ut sciām signifies I demand to know.**

* There is, however, a difference between the two constructions; *volo, ut mihi respondeas* is a much milder expression than *volo te mihi respondere*.

Persuadere, in the sense of *to persuade one to something*, always takes *ut* and the subj.; in the sense of *to persuade or convince one of something*, always the acc. and inf.; e. g. *Themistocles persuaded the people to build a fleet, ut aedificaret. Mithridates convinced Datames, that he had undertaken an endless war, se suscepisse.* So *monere* and *admonere*, in the sense of *to admonish or exhort to something*, are always followed by *ut*; in the sense of *to remind of something*, always by the acc. and inf.; e. g. *we admonished him to escape, ut effugiat; I forewarn you that you will find no better opportunity, te esse repertum.*

397. (a) After the verbs *to permit, to allow, to be content with, to suffer* (*permittēre, sinēre, pati*), *to grant, to concede* (*concedēre*), and after the phrases, *it is true* (*verum est*); *probable* (*verisimile*); *just* (*aequum, justum, rectum*); *useful* (*utile est, expedit*); *it follows* (*consequens est, sequitur, efficit*); *to prove* (*probare, efficere*); *it is fit* (*convenit*), either *ut* or the accusative with the infinitive follows. They more frequently, however, take the latter construction; e. g. *It follows from this, that that alone is good, which is seemly, ex quo efficitur, ut, quod honestum sit, id esse solum bonum, or quod honestum sit, id esse solum bonum; many willingly suffer themselves to be conquered, multi, ut vincantur, patiuntur, or multi se vinci patiuntur.*

398. (4) *Qui* can be used instead of *ut ego, tu, is* in the singular and plural, when *ut* denotes the *purpose or result*, and the pronoun of the sentence refers to a preceding substantive. Hence *quam qui* is used instead of *quam ut*, when a pronoun follows, which refers to the subject of the principal sentence. And hence *quo* in the sense of *in order that, or that*, is almost always used for *ut eo*.

399. (5) After verbs which signify *to hinder, prevent, oppose, deter, stand in the way of* and the like, the Latins express the dependent sentence negatively by *quo minus*. In English we sometimes translate this dependent sentence by *but that*, sometimes by *without, from*.

The verbs which belong here, are: *impedire, prohibere, tenere, deducere, obstarere, officere, obsistere, resistere, repugnare, adversari, detergere, morari, moram efferre, recusare, interdicere, vetare, interpellare, non desiderare* (not to long for), *excusare and others similar*, when the idea expressed is, that *something is not to be accomplished*. Instead of *quo minus*, *ne* is often used, and when the governing sentence is negative, *quin*.

Examples: *Nothing prevents us from being able to do this, quo minus (quin) id facere possimus; Many things prevent other natures from becoming perfect, obsistere — quo minus perficiantur; Scærus was prevented by force, from removing his servant from the temple of Diana, quo minus servum suum — abducet; an accident prevented me from doing this, ne (quo minus) hoc facerem; I cannot be restrained (that I should not write) from writing to you, quin (quo minus, ne) ad te scribam.* *Ne and quominus denote a negative purpose, (that something is not to happen, should not happen), quin a negative result, (that something happens in spite of hindrance, or that the hindrance is not such, that something does not happen); e. g. Non prohibui eum, ne (quo minus) proficeretur, I did not hinder his going, suffered him to go unhindered; but quin proficeretur, he went notwithstanding I hindered him, I could not prevent his going.*

400. (6) When the principal and the dependent sentences are both negative, the Latins prefer *quin* in all cases to *ut non*. They also prefer it to the accusative and the infinitive with *non*, as with *non dicere*, *negare*, *haud ignorare*, *non est suspicio*, etc. Further; in the phrase, *not but that*, *non quin* stands instead of *non quod non* — and generally, as an apparent substitute for *qui*, *quae*, *quod non*, yet only for the nominative of that pronoun. It is, however, never used instead of *ne* and *quod non*, in *imperative sentences* (§ 377), in those denoting *purpose* (§ 374), nor in those denoting *cause* (§ 387). The question made by *quis*, *ecquis* or *num quis* is also considered as belonging to negative principal sentences; e. g. *Who has read this book without being moved?* *quin commoveretur?* *Was there any one, at that time, who did not know?* *ecquis illo tempore fuit, quin sciret?*

So *non dubitare* and *dubium non esse*, signifying *not to doubt*, *not to be doubtful*, *to be certain*, *to hope*, moreover *cave dubitate*, *num (an) dubitas* and the like, signifying *to fear*, in Cicero, are always followed by the conjunction *quin* or *quin non*, and not by the accusative with the infinitive; but *dubitare*, *dubium esse*, signifying *to doubt*, *to hesitate*, *to delay*, as also *non dubitare*, *non dubium esse*, *not to hesitate*, generally take the infinitive, seldom *quin*. On the contrary, *dubitare*, *to doubt*, *to be uncertain*, and *dubium esse*, *to be doubtful*, do not take *quin* after them, but either an accusative with the infinitive, or what is the most frequent, they are followed by interrogative sentences.

Examples.

He does not omit to send me a letter each month, non intermittit, quin mihi singulis mensibus epistolam mittat.

The power of the Tribunes was of no avail, in preventing the ferment of those men, non valuit, quin illi homines praeverrentur.

Nothing is wanting to make me most miserable, i. e. I am most miserable, nihil abest, quin sim miserrimus.

It cannot be effected, but that I shall hate, i. e. I cannot be prevented from hating the freedom of the enemy, effici non potest, quin oderim.

No delay shall be made, but that the city shall be surrendered, i. e. there shall be no delay in surrendering the city, haud ulla intercedet mora, quin urbs datur.

We cannot prevent, but that the others will think differently from us, i. e. we cannot prevent the others from thinking differently from us, non possumus, quin alii a nobis dissentiant, recusare.

I have not given a recommendation to Crassus, not but that I believe this would be valued by you, non quin arbitrarer.

There was no one among all, who did not think, quin existimaret.

Nothing is so difficult, but that it can be investigated, quin investigari possit.

What reason is there, that the Peripatetics are not allowed to say the same? quid est causae, quin licet idem Peripateticis dicere?

Who does not know, that there are in fact three kinds of Greeks? quis ignorat, quin tria Graecorum genera sint vere?

I do not doubt, that you waited for me, non dubito, quin me exspectaveris.

It is not doubtful, but that I shall remain here, quia in hic mansurus sim.

We did not doubt (i. e. we feared) that we could not again overtake you, quia in te jam consequi non possemus; without non, the sense would have been, we hoped to be able to overtake you.

The wise man does not hesitate to quit life, when this is best, non dubitat migrare de vita.

Aristo is altogether uncertain, whether God is a living being or not, deus animans, necne sit.

We doubt whether this is true, an hoc verum sit; whether this is true or false, verumne an falsum sit. Finally,

401. (7) *Verba sentendi and dicendi* are not always followed by sentences with *that, to, etc.*, but often also by interrogative sentences. These two kinds of sentences, therefore, should not be confounded with each other; e. g. *I know not how this happened, quomodo hoc factum sit; you see what you can do, quid valeas; I know not from whence he came, unde venerit; write me why this discourse pleases you, cur oratio tibi placeat.* Here the accusative with the infinitive is not used.

Still further remarks will be made on the conjunction *that* hereafter. But some examples for practice will first be given on the rules already stated.

Examples on §§ 373—401.

(1) We follow this precept, that we may live without anxiety and fear, and free the soul and body from troubles¹. The writings of this man are so unimportant², that only ordinary learning is manifested³. I have commanded⁴ this letter to be returned⁵. The first law of history is, that it should not dare⁶ to state⁷ anything false. I hope, that I shall be at Athens in the month of September. Æmilius Paulus brought⁸ so much money into the treasury⁹, that the spoils of this one commander put¹⁰ an end to taxes. It is pleasing to me, that you long¹¹ for me; but doubt not, that I shall be excited¹² the more, to long for you. O how it pleases me, that it will be told everywhere¹³, in what harmony we have lived. I have so lived, that I do not believe, that I was born in vain. The time is such¹⁴, that every one considers¹⁵ his condition the most unfortunate¹⁶. I indeed¹⁷ think¹⁸ that it is most unfortunate, that we are at Rome. I am very anxious¹⁹, that this youth should be so educated²⁰, that he may answer²¹ your wishes²² and those of his father. Romulus told Julius Proculus, that he was a god and was called Quirinus, and commanded²³ a temple to be dedicated to himself. This youth is not so unacquainted²⁴ with ancient history²⁵ as not to²⁶ know, that the Cimbri and the Teutones were routed²⁷ by Marius. Nature daily²⁸ produces²⁹ sweet³⁰ flowers, as a

striking admonition to man³¹, that that, which blossoms most beautifully³², withers³³ soonest³⁴. We educate³⁵ others, in order that³⁶ they may be better citizens and more useful to their country.

¹ molestia. ² levis. ³ apparere. ⁴ jubere. ⁵ referre. ⁶ audere. ⁷ narrare. ⁸ invehēre. ⁹ aerarium. ¹⁰ finem afferre alicujus. ¹¹ requirēre. ¹² accen-dēre. ¹³ usquequaque. ¹⁴ hujusmōdi. ¹⁵ putare. ¹⁶ miser. ¹⁷ equidem. ¹⁸ ducere. ¹⁹ curae esse. ²⁰ erudire. ²¹ respondere. ²² optatum. ²³ edi-cere. ²⁴ imperitus. ²⁵ (genitive). ²⁶ quin (as not to). ²⁷ fundere. ²⁸ in diem. ²⁹ gignere. ³⁰ odōrus. ³¹ (genitive). ³² spectate. ³³ marcescere. ³⁴ cito. ³⁵ erudire. ³⁶ quo.

(2) I believe that it happens¹ to some², to³ have a dislike⁴ for Grecian writings. Cicero thinks⁵, that the Latin language is not only not meagre⁶, but even⁷ richer⁸ than the Greek. Those who prefer, that something different should be written by me, must⁹ be reasonable; for these subjects¹⁰ please me. Do you believe, that these excellent men have done so great deeds without cause? Decrepit old men often exclaim¹¹, that they were fools, in that they had not lived truly¹². I hope, that I shall soon live in quiet¹³. I know¹⁴ well, that some have stated, that Augustus so much¹⁵ disapproved¹⁶ of the rude manners of Tiberius, that sometimes, when he came, he ceased¹⁷ his joyful¹⁸ conversation¹⁹. Augustus praised the pretor, that he had revived²⁰ the ancient custom of speaking of his ancestors. I believe, that no one could have conducted²¹ more prudently than you have. As I hear, that your strength²² has been weakened²³ by continued labors, I beseech you to spare yourself, in order that we may not be grieved²⁴ by the intelligence that you are sick²⁵. I pray the gods to²⁶ continue²⁷ you to us, and to grant²⁸, that you may now and always be in health²⁹. Lysander perceived that he could not accomplish³⁰ his plan³¹, without the help of the gods. The priests sent messengers to Lacedemon to³² accuse Lysander of³³ endeavoring³⁴ to corrupt the priests of the temple. No one can deny, that this pronunciation³⁵ is correct. Laenius Flaccus was not prevented³⁶ by the Clodian law from showing³⁷ the right of hospitality to Cicero. Brave men prefer to die rather than to be taken captive. I will say nothing more³⁸ of the pretor of Macedonia, than³⁹ that he was an excellent citizen and my most intimate⁴⁰ friend, but he feared just what others (fear).

¹ usu venire. ² quidam. ³ ut. ⁴ abhorre ab aliqua re (see § 177). ⁵ censere. ⁶ inops. ⁷ etiam. ⁸ locuples. ⁹ debere. ¹⁰ res. ¹¹ clamitare. ¹² vere. ¹³ otium. ¹⁴ non ignorare. ¹⁵ adeo (so much). ¹⁶ improbare.

¹⁷ abscindere. ¹⁸ hilāris. ¹⁹ sermo. ²⁰ referre. ²¹ se gerēre. ²² vires.
²³ conficēre. ²⁴ dolore afficēre. ²⁵ languēre. ²⁶ ut. ²⁷ servare. ²⁸ con-
dēre. ²⁹ valēre. ³⁰ perficēre. ³¹ consilium. ³² qui. ³³ quod. ³⁴ conari (plu-
perfect). ³⁵ litterarum appellatio. ³⁶ deduci. ³⁷ praestare. ³⁸ amplius.
³⁹ nisi. ⁴⁰ amicissimus.

(3) Cicero relates, that two Roman knights had been found¹, who had promised Catiline, that they would slay Cicero by night. Often no hope is held out² to a patient, that he will be better; and yet³ it not seldom happens, that he recovers⁴ and has new strength⁵. Manlius confidently hopes⁶, that by this my letter, he will be agreeable⁷ to you; and that this hope may not deceive him, I earnestly and particularly request you so to treat him in all things, that he may perceive, that my recommendation was no⁸ common⁹ one. Tiberius received¹⁰ the government, complaining¹¹ that an oppressive¹² servitude was imposed¹³ upon him; yet he gave hopes, that he would at some time¹⁴ surrender¹⁵ it again. The same emperor forbade any statues to be erected¹⁶ for him, and he permitted it only on the condition, that they should not be placed among the statues¹⁷ of the gods. Julius Caesar persuaded a Gaul to¹⁸ go over¹⁹ to the enemy and say to them, that the Romans feared them, and Caesar would be hardly²⁰ pressed²¹ by them, and it would certainly happen, that he would be routed²², if they should attack²³ him. Cato believed, that all the cities of Spain would revolt²⁴; he therefore wrote to each one²⁵ to destroy their fortifications²⁶, and he commanded this to be done the same day. You write, that you were not a little²⁷ troubled²⁸ by my absence, and that you had only one consolation²⁹, viz. that you possessed³⁰ my books instead of³¹ me. I know what cause prevented³² you from being able to anticipate³³ my arrival in Campania. I wonder that you write, that there were some, who find fault, that I recite my discourses to others. Who was so inhuman as not to have been affected³⁴ by the misfortune of that man? Was there any one³⁵ who did not weep³⁶? It was written in the Valerian law, that the goods of those who had been proscribed, should be sold³⁷.

¹ reperiri. ² ostendi. ³ nec tamen (and yet not). ⁴ convalescēre. ⁵ ref-
lēci (has — strength). ⁶ vehementer confidēre. ⁷ gratiosus. ⁸ non. ⁹ vul-
gāris. ¹⁰ recipēre. ¹¹ querens. ¹² onerosus. ¹³ injungēre. ¹⁴ quandoque.
¹⁵ deponēre. ¹⁶ ponēre. ¹⁷ signum. ¹⁸ ut. ¹⁹ transire. ²⁰ graviter. ²¹ pre-
mēre. ²² fundēre. ²³ adoriri. ²⁴ rebellare. ²⁵ singūli. ²⁶ munimentum.
²⁷ mediocriter. ²⁸ afficēre. ²⁹ unum solarium. ³⁰ tenēre. ³¹ pro. ³² im-
pedimentum (comp. § 173). ³³ praecurrēre. ³⁴ commovēre. ³⁵ equis.
³⁶ lacrimari. ³⁷ venire.

(4) Augustus wrote to Tiberius, who entreated in behalf of¹ a Grecian client, that he would not grant² his request, unless³ he should be convinced by his own eyes⁴, how just a reason he had for entreating. The same refused⁵ the right of citizenship⁶ to Livia, who asked it for a tributary⁷ Gaul, and offered an exemption⁸ from taxation, he protesting that he would more readily grant⁹, that something should be taken¹⁰ from the treasury¹¹, than that the honor of Roman citizenship should be made common¹². I perceive, that you believe one¹³ law must be observed in history and another¹³ in a poem. Philosophers believe, that morality¹⁴ is a law¹⁵, the force of which is this¹⁶, that it commands¹⁷ to do right and forbids to do wrong¹⁸. If bodily pain or feeble* health has prevented¹⁹ you from coming to the games, I attribute this to your good fortune. Orgetorix persuaded the Helvetii to depart²⁰ from their district²¹ with all their effects²². When we are free²³ from business, we desire²⁴ to see, to hear, to learn something; and we are grieved, if we are hindered from doing** this. When Timoleon had killed his brother, his mother never looked upon him, but that she called him a fratricide. Caesar complained²⁵ severely²⁶ of the Aedui, that he was not assisted²⁷ by them with corn. The Sequani bound²⁸ the Aedui by an oath, that they would never refuse²⁹ to continue under their government. Cleomenes commanded³⁰ the mast³¹ of the ship to be erected³², the sails to be spread³³, and the anchor to be raised³⁴; he also³⁵ at the same time commanded³⁶ a signal to be given for³⁷ the others to follow him. I hope thy parents will come here soon; I hope thy brother also. I would prefer³⁸ to be a Phidias, rather than even³⁹ the best carpenter⁴⁰.

¹ pro (in — of). ² dare. ³ aliter quam si. ⁴ praesens (by — eyes). ⁵ negare. ⁶ civitas (right of citizenship). ⁷ vectigalis. ⁸ immunitas (exemption — taxation). ⁹ pati. ¹⁰ detrahēre de. ¹¹ fiscus. ¹² vulgare. ¹³ alias. ¹⁴ prudentia. ¹⁵ lex. ¹⁶ is. ¹⁷ jubēre. ¹⁸ delinquēre. * infirmitas (feeble health). ¹⁹ tenēre. ²⁰ exire. ²¹ fines. ²² copiae. ²³ vacūus. ²⁴ avēre. ** posse. ²⁶ accusare aliquem. ²⁶ graviter. ²⁷ sublevare. ²⁸ abstringēre. ²⁹ recusare. ³⁰ imperare. ³¹ mālus. ³² erigēre. ³³ pandēre. ³⁴ tollēre. ³⁵ et. ³⁶ jubēre. ³⁷ (acc. with inf.) ³⁸ malle. ³⁹ vel. ⁴⁰ faber tignarius.

(5) Divitiacus believed, that the Germans would not restrain¹ from² going³ to Italy, if they should take the whole of Gaul. The tenth legion thanked Caesar, that he had expressed⁴ the best opinion of them, and they assured him, that they were fully prepared⁵ to⁶ wage war. The Germans could

not be restrained⁷ from casting⁸ their missiles⁹ at the Romans. It generally happens that those who report¹⁰ anything favorable, add¹¹ something, in order to render what they announce¹² the more joyful. That was the greatest gift which you conferred¹³ on the state, that you abolished¹⁴ the name of Dictator. So govern¹⁵ the state, that your fellow citizens may rejoice, that you were born. Our nature has nothing better, than that we wish¹⁶ to aid as many as possible¹⁷. The power of conscience is so great, that those who have committed¹⁸ nothing are without fear¹⁹, while those who have sinned²⁰, believe that punishment is always floating²¹ before their eyes. Who is so unreasonable as to censure this institution of Solon? Curio has done well²², that he has not sought²³ for the tribuneship. I hope that men will perceive how very hateful²⁴ cruelty is²⁵ to all, and how very lovely honesty and gentleness are. In what danger²⁶ my welfare is placed²⁷, you can know²⁸ from this, that we have abandoned our houses and even²⁹ our country. If it be true, that the soul and body perish together³⁰, then there is nothing good and nothing evil in death. What could have been more arrogant, than that a Greek³¹, who had never seen an enemy or a camp, should give instructions to Hannibal, the greatest general of his time, respecting warfare³². We do not wonder that you, as a distinguished³³ artist, were pleased³⁴ with your works.

¹ temperare. ² quin. ³ contendere. ⁴ facere. ⁵ paratissimus. ⁶ ad. ⁷ cohibere. ⁸ mittere. ⁹ telum. ¹⁰ afferre. ¹¹ affingere. ¹² nuntiare. ¹³ afferre. ¹⁴ tollere. ¹⁵ gubernare. ¹⁶ velle. ¹⁷ quam plurimus (as—possible). ¹⁸ committere. ¹⁹ non timere. ²⁰ peccare. ²¹ versari. ²² laute. ²³ petere. ²⁴ odium (dative). ²⁵ (§ 173). ²⁶ discrimen. ²⁷ versari. ²⁸ scire. ²⁹ ipse. ³⁰ alicujus rei idem est interitus (perish together). ³¹ Graecus homo. ³² res militaris. ³³ egregius. ³⁴ laetari.

(6) Do you believe¹, that Cicero would more willingly² have heard your discourse than mine? Octavian asked pardon³, that he used a Greek word. It is the custom of men to be unwilling, that one and the same person⁴ should excel in several things. I believe, that we shall be considered⁵ as enemies of our country. In all these afflictions, there is this one consolation, that we were born under such a condition, that we ought⁶ to refuse nothing which can befall a man. It is certain, that we were born to be just. There is no doubt, that he whom we call liberal and beneficent⁷, regards⁸ duty, not gratification⁹. Do you believe that Pompey would have rejoiced¹⁰ in his three consulships and three triumphs, if he

had known, that he would be murdered in the desert¹¹ of the Egyptians ; and that such¹² things would follow¹³ his death, as¹⁴ we cannot relate¹⁵ without tears ? But what do we believe Caesar would have done, if he could have foreseen¹⁶, that he would be assassinated in the Curia of Pompey¹⁷ by noble citizens, and¹⁸ that not only no one of his friends, but not even one of his servants, would approach¹⁹ his corpse²⁰? With what anguish of soul²¹ do we think he would have passed²² his life ? The principal thing²³ in the management²⁴ of all business and public trust²⁵ is, that even the least suspicion of avarice should be avoided²⁶. We have heard²⁷, that it was counted²⁸ an honor to Cnaeus Octavius, that he had built a beautiful²⁹ house on the Palatine³⁰ hill. We cannot doubt, that those things are most³¹ expedient³², which are best³³.

¹ censere. ² libenter. ³ venia. ⁴ (omitted in Latin). ⁵ judicare. ⁶ de-
bēre. ⁷ benignus. ⁸ sequi. ⁹ fructus. ¹⁰ laetari. ¹¹ solitudo. ¹² ea. ¹³ con-
séqui. ¹⁴ qui. ¹⁵ dicere. ¹⁶ divinari. ¹⁷ Pompeius (of Pompey). ¹⁸ nec
modo quisquam. ¹⁹ accedere ad aliquem. ²⁰ corpus. ²¹ cruciatus animi.
²² agere. ²³ caput. ²⁴ procuratio. ²⁵ munus. ²⁶ pellere, ²⁷ accipere. ²⁸ du-
cere (§ 173). ²⁹ praeclarus. ³⁰ Palatum. ³¹ maxime. ³² conducere.
³³ rectus.

Further Remarks on the Conjunction that.

402. (1) The English infinitive present often supplies the place of the Latin future infinitive, which does not belong to our language. Therefore, when the present infinitive is joined to an English verb, and yet the thought does not relate to the present, but to the future, in Latin the future infinitive must be employed. This is very often the case with the verbs *to hope* (*sperare*) and *to swear* (*jurare*), and almost always with the verbs *to promise* (*polliceri*, *sponde-re*, *recipere* in *se*, *mittere*) and *to threaten* (*minari*), and some others; e. g. *I hope to come home soon*, i. e. *that I shall come home soon*, *spero me mox domum venturum*. *Regulus took an oath to return to Carthage*, *se Carth. redditurum*. *I promise to send you money as soon as possible*, *me missurum*. *Caesar threatened to destroy the city*, *se diruturum*. So with others in a similar sense; e. g. *He thought to effect something by going there*. *I think (expect) to be there the first of January*, for which we often say, *I think of being there*, *I think of doing that*, where the Latin uses the future infinitive.

Sperare (to hope) can also be followed by an infinitive present, when, in the nearest clause, reference is had only to the present, or when the thing to be hoped for is closely connected with the present, and by an infinitive perfect, when there is reference to past time; e. g. *I hope (that) our friendship needs no witnesses*, *non egere*. *I hope (that) I have obtained the praise of honesty*, *me consecutum esse*.

403. (2) The future infinitive, active and passive, is wanting, in the usual form, in all those verbs which have no supine. This is the case with *discere*, *florere*, *patere*, *timere*, *ingruere*, *silere*, *maerere*, *evanescere*, *accidere*, *pocnitere*, *obtingere*, etc. So also with *posse*. Comp. § 383.

Instead of this infinitive, the Latins use the periphrastic *fore* or *futurum (esse)*, *ut*, i. e. *it will (would) happen, that*; and where something is already accomplished, *futurum fuisse*, *ut, it would have happened, that*. But everything which belongs to the sentence is connected by *ut*, and the verb is put either in the present or imperfect; in the first, when in the principal clause, there is a present; in the last, when there is a past tense; e. g. *I hope that you will learn this language in a short time*, *spero fore, ut discas*. *I thought that a tempest would fall upon us*, *putabam fore, ut ingrueret*. *I know that this man will be very much troubled*, *scio fore, ut angatur*. *I earnestly hoped, that I should be able to establish harmony*, *fore, ut possem constituere*. *I certainly know, that it would have been for my interest if I had done this*, *futurum fuisse, ut hoc mihi contingaret*. *I think it will be lawful for me, fore, ut mihi liceat*. If other verbs follow, which have an infinitive future, they can have their proper form, without depending on *fore, ut*, when they have their own subjects; e. g. *fore, ut Eudemus—convalesceret (will regain his health again), et Alexandrum—peritulum (will perish)*.

But very frequently, also, the Latins use this periphrasis with *fore, ut*, where the verbs really have a supine and therefore also the infinitive form in *urum esse* and *umiri*; e. g. *The Stoics think, that at some time, the whole world will be burnt, fore aliquando, ut omnis mundus deflagret*. *I know, that you will be praised by all, fore ut ab omnibus collaudere*.

404. (3) Two accusatives, denoting persons, are to be avoided with an infinitive active, when they leave it uncertain, which accusative is the subject; for, e. g. *scio, te me amare*, can signify, *that you love me, or that I love you*. Hence it should be changed into the passive; thus, *I know that you love me, scio me a te amari*. *I know that I love you, scio te a me amari*. *I believe that I shall see Brutus, Brutum visum iri a me puto, not me Brutum visum esse*. *I did not wish you to see me, me a te videri nolui*.

405. (4) The impersonals *oportere* and *necesse esse* properly signify *to be necessary*, but they are often also translated by the personal verb *must*. Hence, in every sentence in which *must* is used, the verb *to be necessary* that must be supplied in its place. Both of these verbs are followed either by the accusative with the infinitive, or by the nominative with the subjunctive without *ut*; e. g. *I must come to you (it is necessary that I should come to you)*, *me ad vos venire oportet*, or (*ego*) *ad vos veniam oportet*. *You must love me myself, not mine, te oportet me ipsum amare, non mea, or (tu) me ipsum a me oportet*. *Such a man must be taught, talem hominem oportet doceri*. *The most unhappy life must result from this, ex hoc vitam amarissimam necesse est effici, or vita amarissima efficiatur*. *It was necessary for us to use this means, hac ratione nos uti necesse fuit, or hac ratione uteremur necesse fuit*. *Licet, in the same manner as oportere and necesse esse*,

is followed by the accusative with the infinitive or by the nominative with the subjunctive, *ut* being omitted; *necesse esse*, and *licet* admit also a dative with the infinitive, as well as an accusative; e. g. *It is not necessary for me to speak of myself*, *nihil necesse est mihi de me ipso dicere*. *I must be on my estates*, in *praediis meis mihi necesse est esse*. *I can no longer remain neutral*, *mihi medio or medium esse or me medium jam non esse licet*. Where the person is not expressed, *medium* or *medios esse jam non licet*, is used. See § 174.

406. (5) Words denoting *fear*, *anxiety*, *danger* and *apprehension* are followed by *ne*, *ut ne* or *ut non*, in the sense of *that*, and by *ut* or *ne non*, in the sense of *that not*. But after *non vereor*, *non timeo* and other verbs of fearing when negatived, *ut* is not used, but in its place only *ne non*. The particles *ne non* may be separated not only by words, but also by intervening clauses. Examples: *I fear, that this war will not terminate favorably*, *ut (ne non) feliciter cedat*. *I fear, that Dolabella may become a disgrace to us*, *ne fieri possit*. *The apprehension remained, that Hasdrubal would protract the war*, *ne extraheret*. *There is danger, that we may be overpowered*, *ne opprimamur*. *I do not fear, that your virtue will not meet the expectation of men*, *ne non respondeat*. The clause with *ut* expresses what we wish may happen, but fear may not happen: that with *ne*, what we wish may not happen, but fear may happen. In both cases, it will be seen that *ut* and *ne* point to the *implied wish*, and are employed as if a verb of wishing had preceded, but they are translated respectively by *that not* and *that*, to suit the verbs of fearing actually used. In dependent sentences, a future is never used after verbs and nouns of the above signification, but a present, imperfect or perfect. Comp. §(251. h.) In lively and confidential statements, Cicero often uses *vide*, *videte*, *videndum est*, *ne*, in the sense of, *I fear that*. But when to *fear* means to be afraid to do something, it is followed by the infinitive; e. g. *He fears to do or say anything unmanly*, *veretur quidquam aut facere aut loqui*.

407. (6) The verbs *capere* and *videre*, in the sense of *to take care*, *to enjoin*, *to see to*, are followed by *ut* in affirmative sentences, and *ne* in negative ones; e. g. *Epicurus enjoined in his will, that his birthday should be celebrated*, *cavit, ut dies ageretur*. *We must see to it, that we use that generosity which is useful*, *ut ea liberalitate utamur, quae prosit*. *We must see to it, that generosity does not prove injurious*, *videndum est, ne obicit benignitas*.

408. The verb *cavere*, in the sense of *to beware of*, is followed, especially in the imperative, by the subjunctive merely, *ne* being more seldom used; e. g. *Beware of engaging in anything new, or that you do not engage*, *cave quidquam novi molire*. *Beware of saying or doing anything foolishly*, *cave, ne quid stulte aut dicas aut facias*. *Beware of preferring (or how you prefer) Socrates to Cato*, *cave Catoni anteponas Socratem*.

409. (7) With the verb *excusare* (to excuse), *that* which one *excuses* or *apologizes for*, is expressed by *quod*, and *that* by which he excuses or apologizes for anything, by the accusative and the infinitive, in which case *dicens* can be understood; e. g. *That he had not come yesterday, he excused (by saying) that he was sick*, *quod heri non venisset, excusavit, se aegrotasse*.

410. (8) The phrases, *to be so far from* and *instead of*, are express-

ed by *tantum abesse*. Here there are always two clauses connected with *abesse*, the second of which wholly reverses the statement of the first; e. g. *So far am I from censuring this murder, that I praise it*, or, instead of *censuring this murder, I praise it*. The Latins often place *ab eo* after *abesse*, for the purpose of directing attention to the nearest clause containing the principal idea.

The Latins usually connect both of such clauses with *tantum abesse*, by a double *ut*; thus, *tantum abest, ut hanc caudem reprehendam, ut eam laudem*. *So far were the Rhodians from defending our fleet, that they even kept our soldiers from the harbor*, *tantum absuit, ut Rhodii nostram classem tuerentur, ut etiam portu prohiberent nostros milites*. *Instead of assenting to this opinion, I shall even refute it*, *tantum aberit, ut huic sententiae assentiar, ut eam etiam refellam*. The first *ut* depends upon *abesse*, the second on *tantum*.

It will be seen from these three examples, that *tantum abesse* is always in the third person singular, and that its tense depends upon the tense of the clause immediately connected with it, so that when the action is present, *tantum abest* is used, when it is past, *tantum absuit* or *aberat* or *absuerat*, according to the nature of the case, when it is future, *tantum abegrit*.

Often, however, the Latins put the second clause without *ut*, making it a principal clause, by which construction that clause becomes more prominent. But this happens, only when the second clause contains a complete idea of itself; e. g. *Instead of seeking for pleasure, they endure even cares, anxieties, and watchings*, *tantum abest ut hi voluntates consequentur, etiam curas, sollicitudines, vigilias perferunt*. Sometimes they express the first clause by a substantive, and connect it by the preposition *a* with *abesse*, which is then a personal verb; e. g. *Your similarity of age is so far from calumny and envy, that it seems rather to unite you*, *aequalitas vestra tantum abest ab obtricatione invidiaque, ut ea vos concilia-re videatur*.

Etiam and *contra* (rather or even) serve to strengthen the second clause. Later writers improperly use *potius* also.

411. (9) *Verba sentiendi and dicendi in the passive.*

Verba sentiendi and *dicendi*, e. g. *putare, existimare, dicere, tradere, perhibere, ferre* (to relate, to declare), *nuntiare* (to announce), *negare* (to deny), *audire*, etc., take their object in the accusative, even when it refers to persons; for one may say, *putat me, he thinks that I*; *dicit me, he says that I*. Hence, in the passive, these are personal verbs, which have all the different persons, so that one may say, *dicor, diceris, dicitur, dicimur, dicimini, diruntur*. And so of the others. But in English, we very frequently translate these in the third person singular, as impersonal, e. g. *It is said, it is related, it is thought*, followed by a clause with *that*; e. g. *It is said, that I, or they say, that I; it is said, that we, etc.* But, as the Latin verbs in the passive, have all the persons, both singular and plural, the subject standing in the clause with *that*, becomes in Latin, the subject of this passive, and hence nothing but an infinitive can follow it. Moreover, as the predicate of this infinitive refers to the subject of the passive, it must be in the nominative. These verbs, therefore, may be said to take a nominative with the infinitive, not an accusative with the infinitive.

Examples: *I am thought to have followed him, or it is thought that I have followed him, ego hunc secutus esse putor; you are thought, or it is thought, that you, tu — putaris; it is thought that Epicurus, Epicurus — putatur; it is thought that we have followed him, nos hunc secuti esse putamur; it was announced that the bridge was built, pons effectus (esse) nuntiabatur.*

412. The same is true of all other passive verbs, which have all the persons; e. g. *I am found, they find, that I; it is found, that I, reperior, invenior; I am ordered, forbidden, it is ordered, forbidden to me, jubeor, vetor.* These and all similar verbs are followed by the infinitive, the predicate of which is in the nominative; e. g. *It will be found that the gods have gone from earth to Heaven, Dii profecti esse reperientur.* And thus this attraction of the subject of the second or dependent verb in English, so as to become the subject (nominative) of the principal verb, takes place with many others, especially where such a construction alone is possible and natural; e. g. *Where it is conceded, that these things were done, there it will not be denied, that violence was used, haec (nominative) ubi conceduntur esse facta, ibi vis facta (esse) non negabitur.* But it is to be noticed, that *narrare* in the passive is never so found in a good prose writer, and that only the poets so use *narratur*. Therefore that use of it is not admissible. In like manner *traditur, creditur, nuntiatur, proditur*, especially in the perfect form and in the periphrastic conjugation, e. g. *nuntiatum est, credendum est, etc.*, very frequently occur with the accusative and the infinitive.

413. The above principle applies especially to the passive *videri, to seem.* Although we can say, *I seem, thou seemest, he seems, etc.*, yet we often say instead of these, *it seems, or it appears to me, that I, (you, he), etc.* But in Latin, this verb is only a personal verb, *videor, videris, videtur, etc.*, and therefore must always stand in a definite person, and the subject must be attracted to it from the dependent English clause; thus: *It seems, that I, videor, etc., which also can be followed only by an infinitive, the predicate of the infinitive being in the nominative; e. g., I seem to be free, or it seems that I am free, ego liber esse videor; it seems that we are free, nos liberi esse videmur; it seems to me that men were born for justice, homines nati esse mihi videntur; it has seemed to me that you did this unwillingly, hoc invitus fecisse mihi visus es.* It is only when *mihi videtur* signifies *it is my opinion*, the same as *placet mihi*, that it takes an accusative with the infinitive, which is the subject of *videtur*. In this case, which rarely occurs, it forms a sentence by itself.

So also in single intermediate sentences, e. g. *as it seems*, although *ut* is used, the verb must be put in the same person as the subject of the sentence connected with it; e. g. *As it seems, you do not judge rightly, ut videris, non recte judicas.* Hence the abridged form, *non recte judicare videris.* And so in all persons and similar examples; e. g. *I am not in so great fear, as it perhaps seems to you, quam tibi fortasse videor, not videtur; these words do not signify the same, as it seems, ut videntur.*

414. (10) *The English of, or in respect to, with Verba sentiendi and dicendi.*

With *verba sentiendi* and *dicendi*, we sometimes mention the subject or object of the following sentence with *that*, twice; first, by the preposition *of*, then by a new pronoun referring to that substantive or pronoun which stands with *of*; e. g. *Of (in respect to) Socrates, we know that he was mild. You say of me, that I err. You say of me, that this does not please me.* So also in passive phrases: *It is thought of me, that I did this.*—Such a superfluous use of words the Latins do not approve, but unite both sentences. Hence those examples are expressed: *Scimus Socratem fuisse clementem. Me errare dicis. Mihī hoc non placere dicis. Hoc fecisse p̄ntor.* The English also in most cases avoids this repetition. Yet when the person with *of* is to be made particularly emphatic, the Latins also use *de*; then the sentence is expressed thus: *De Socrate, clementem eum fuisse scimus.* This however occurs but seldom.

415. But with the pronoun *who*, *which*, it sometimes happens, that in English we cannot avoid this construction, because we cannot say, *that who, which*.—Here also the pronoun, *who, which* (*qui, quae, quod*) in Latin, must be attracted to the nearest clause with *that*; e. g. *We trust him (those), of whom we think, that he (they) is (are) a lover of truth, or who, we think, is (are) etc., quem (quos) veritatis amantem (amantes) esse arbitramur. I found him of whom I did not know, that he was there. Of what man did you say, that the province had fallen to him by lot? cui viro provinciam obtigisse dixisti? We esteem those of whom we believe, that these virtues exist in them, in quibus eas virtutes esse remur.* So in dependent interrogative sentences, which stand in connection with a relative; *Caesar, of whom it is at least uncertain, whether he will imitate Phalaris or Pisistratus, qui quidem incertum est Phalarimne an Pisistratum sit imitaturus; my property (res familiaris), of which you well know, how it has been diminished, quae quemadmodum fracta sit, non ignoras.*

(11) *Abridgement and connection of two sentences in one.*

416. Intermediate clauses, e. g. *as I think, I think, as you say, as it seems*; also phrases, e. g. *according to (in) my opinion, according to the account (wish) of all*, can be abridged and become the governing verbs of the sentences connected with them, while these verbs form a sentence with *that*. Then instead of saying, *as I believe, etc., we say, I believe, thou sayest, it seems*, (comp. § 413), *I think, all relate (wish), it is known, I hope.* So all similar examples may be treated; e. g. *As I hope, you will soon go home, or, you will, as I hope, soon go home, i. e. I hope, that you — spero te mox domum iturum; the time has come, as you see, tempus venisse vides; this is, as the Stoics wish (in the opinion of the Stoics), to live virtuous, hoc esse Stoici volunt honeste vivere; the letter of Brutus had not yet come, which, as I certainly know, will be full of fear, quas certe scio plenas timoris fore; according to the account of the messenger, you are sometimes wont to be altogether too much troubled, tabellarius te narrat.*

vit interdum sollicitum solere esse vehementius; I was, I remember, many years before, with your uncle, me mini me adesse ante plures annos avunculo tuo; I dare not, he added, act against this law, ad debat se contra hanc legem facere non audere; was he, in your opinion, troubled in his mind? num illum censes anxi animo fuisse? What hope have you, in your opinion? quam spem tibi esse putas? The Gauls, as is known, first passed over the Alps, Gallos prius Alpes transisse constat; Pluto, as is believed, traversed Egypt, Plato Egyptum peragrasse putatur, or Platonem Egyptum peragrasse putant.

417. With the verbs *audire* and *videre* (but not in the metaphorical sense *to perceive*), the present participle can be used instead of the infinitive, when it contains, in all respects, the same idea of duration; e. g. *I saw Cato sitting in the library of Lucullus, vidi Catonem sedentem* (for *sedere*); *I heard the aged Cato speak of old age, in this assembly, Catonem loquenter* (for *loqui*) *audiui*. So the verbs *fingere, facere*, in the sense of *represent* or *introduce*, are always construed with the participle; e. g. *Xenophon represents (introduces) Socrates as disputing*, *Xenophon facit Socratem disputantem*. But if the dependent verb is *passive*, then, as the passive has no present participle, the infinitive must always be used; e. g. *Plato represents the world as constructed by God*, *mundum construi facit*.

418. (12) *The position of the accusative with the infinitive.*

As dependent sentences and cases are very often placed before the words on which they depend, e. g. *ubi sis, nescio*, instead of *nescio, ubi sis*, so the Latins very often place the accusative with the infinitive before the word on which it depends; e. g. *Ego in his praecceptis vim et utilitatem quandam esse arbitror. Ille mihi fugisse a Mutina videtur. Hirtium perisse nesciebam. Ipsam vero urbem vastatam esse, quis ignorat?* — But they often insert the governing verb in the sentence, and then usually place it directly after the accusative or before it; e. g. *Ego me cupio non mendacem putari. Te intelligis errasse. Hi se fatentur ne manum quidem versuros. Cui spero me satisfecisse.*

Examples for practice on §§ 402—418.

(1) I hope to finish¹ this book in a short time. Since virtue causes² friendship, therefore love must³ arise⁴ from this, when it exists⁵. Although⁶ you must⁷ have had precepts of life in abundance⁸, yet I believe, that that which I teach⁹ you, will not be superfluous¹⁰. Two Roman knights promised Catiline, that they would kill Cicero in the night. It is said, that the Thessalian Lapithae were the first, who contended on horseback¹¹; and in like manner it is said, that the Phrygians¹² first harnessed¹³ a two-horse chariot¹⁴. Manlius hopes by this my letter to gain your favor¹⁵. I then spoke much in

the Senate, and, as it seemed, I especially¹⁶ moved the Senate by mentioning¹⁷ your good will¹⁸. I give you the greatest thanks, that you have shown¹⁹ me so great respect²⁰, but it seems to me, that I cannot reward²¹ you for it. This error, as it were the germ of all evil, philosophy promises utterly* to eradicate²². Not only²³ to others, at least²⁴, as it seems, but also²⁵ to myself, am I displeasing.

¹ conficere. ² contrahere. ³ necesse esse. ⁴ exoriri. ⁵ contingere.
⁶ quanquam. ⁷ oportere. ⁸ abundare (to have in abundance). ⁹ tradere.
¹⁰ supervacaneus. ¹¹ ex equis. ¹² Phryx. ¹³ jungere. ¹⁴ bigae. ¹⁵ esse
 gratiosus. ¹⁶ maxime. ¹⁷ commemoratio. ¹⁸ voluntas (good will).
¹⁹ praestare. ²⁰ officium. ²¹ referre gratias. ²² stirpitus. ²³ extrahere.
²⁴ cum (not only). ²⁵ quidem. ²⁶ tun (but also).

(2) So far is death from being considered an evil, we think rather that it is a blessing to every man, and that men will live far happier, than at present. If it seems to you that I am foolish, because¹ I hope, know that you yourself have excited² many hopes in me³, and have encouraged me not to doubt, that future times would be better. I shall be zealously⁴ anxious for everything, of which I shall perceive, that it is useful⁵ to you. No one can doubt that the state of Athens has brought many arts to perfection⁶; and, as it is said of Polycletus, that he had perfected⁷ sculpture⁸, so it is certain, that at the same time Sophocles had perfected⁹ poetry. It seems that the graces themselves formed¹⁰ the style¹¹ of Xenophon. It can be doubtful to no one, that the reign of Pisistratus was very beneficial¹² to Athens; for he was so far from being tyrannical¹³ towards his fellow-citizens, that these afterwards even said, that, under him¹⁴, there was a kind¹⁵ of golden age. It is not unjustly¹⁶ said of Julius Caesar, that he was an accomplice¹⁷ of Catiline's conspiracy.

¹ qui. ² concitare. ³ (dative). ⁴ studiose. ⁵ pertinere ad. ⁶ perfecte ab-
 solvere (to bring to perfection). ⁷ consummare. ⁸ toretice. ⁹ perficere.
¹⁰ fingere. ¹¹ oratio. ¹² salubris. ¹³ gravis. ¹⁴ eo regnante (under him).
¹⁵ quidam (which agrees with the noun). ¹⁶ falso. ¹⁷ socius.

(3) It is said of the foliage¹ of the laurel, that it is not struck by lightning. Aristotle says of some small animals², that they live only one day; and such³ there actually⁴ are, as* natural history proves. Historians⁵ say with justice of Numa Pompilius and Servius Tullius, that Rome owes⁶ much to their wise⁷ regulations. A certain Cynaegirus held⁸, as⁹ history says, a loaded¹⁰ ship of the Persians, first with his hands, then with his teeth. If it is true, that the souls of all** the

truly noble¹¹ escape¹² most easily at death, from the fettters of the body, of whom do we believe, that his flight¹³ to the gods was more easy, than that of Scipio? I came to Capua yesterday in a very severe¹⁴ storm, as I had been commanded, for the command¹⁵ had been given us by the consuls to come hither. The emperor Claudius commanded¹⁵ a guest¹⁶, of whom it was believed, that the day before¹⁷ he had stolen¹⁸ a golden goblet¹⁹, to place before²⁰ him an earthen²¹ cup²², the next day. Some, of whom I hear that they have been considered wise in Greece, as²³ I believe, have asserted many²⁴ wonderful things. When Deucalion²⁵ and Pyrrha had been answered by Apollo, that they should throw the bones of their great mother behind²⁶ their backs, they were uncertain²⁷ what Apollo advised²⁸. Finally, Deucalion said, We are certainly²⁹ commanded by Apollo to throw stones behind our backs. The long³⁰ friendship, which, as you well know³¹, I and my brother had with Caesar, was most serviceable³². As it is said of a patient, that he has hope as long as³³ he has breath³⁴, so I have not ceased³⁵ to hope. You look upon³⁶ me, and, as it seems, in anger³⁷.

¹ frons. ² bestiola (small animal). ³ is. ⁴ vere. * (according to § 416). ⁵ scriptor. ⁶ debere. ⁷ bene institutum (wise regulation). ⁸ retinere. ⁹ (according to § 416). ¹⁰ onustus. ^{**} quisque (compare § 481). ¹¹ opimus (truly noble). ¹² evolare. ¹³ cursus. ¹⁴ magnus. ¹⁵ jubere. ¹⁶ conviva. ¹⁷ pridie. ¹⁸ surripere. ¹⁹ scyphus. ²⁰ opponere. ²¹ fictilis. ²² calix. ²³ (according to § 416). ²⁴ quaedam. ²⁵ (dative). ²⁶ post. ²⁷ penderem. ²⁸ animis. ²⁹ suadere. ³⁰ certe. ³¹ vetus. ³² non ignorare (according to § 416). ³³ valere. ³⁴ dum (as — as). ³⁵ anima. ³⁶ desistere. ³⁷ adspicere. ³⁸ iratus (in anger).

(4) If the interest¹ of the hearer is wearied², the orator must³ promise to speak more briefly than he had intended⁴. I fear that you do not know⁵ the true way to glory, and that you consider⁶ it glorious, that you alone are more powerful⁷ than all. It is believed, that refinement⁸, learning, religion, fruits, justice and laws originated in Attica, and were disseminated⁹ into all lands. The city of Athens is so old, that it is said, that she produced her citizens from herself. Who wonders that Catiline died fighting against his country, of whom all believe, that he was born for robbery? We judge rightly, as¹⁰ it seems to us. Everything which you have written to me of hope, is weak¹¹, as it seems to me. I pass by this, that it may not seem that we learned that elsewhere¹², of which it is believed, that we invented¹³ it ourselves. Avitus communicated¹⁴ what he had heard to the senator Baebius, of whom

all know, how¹⁵ faithful¹⁶ and wise¹⁷ he was. Does it seem, that we are so narrow minded¹⁸ as to think, that everything will perish together with us? The night the temple of the Ephesian Diana was burnt¹⁹, in this same, as is known²⁰, Alexander was born. Those men seemed to use so gentle²¹ a poison, that it seemed, that we could die without pain.. I would rather pass over the circumstance in silence, but I fear it would not be lawful. So far are these precepts from illustrating human nature, that they rather obscure the whole doctrine²² by fictions and useless²³ opinions. We hope, that you will excel²⁴ in this art. I well knew²⁵, that this my work would be exposed²⁶ to much reproach²⁷. I believe, that we shall be considered* friends of our country. It seems that we should have been quiet²⁸, if we had not been provoked²⁹. It seems to me, that you do what seditious citizens are wont to do, when they quote³⁰ some renowned ancestors, who, they say, were friends of the people³¹. Will it be denied, that Appius Caecus terminated³² the shameful³³ peace, by the force of his eloquence. It is believed, that we followed the opinion of Epicurus without cause. It must be believed³⁴, that we have been united³⁵ with the gods by sound³⁶ reason.

¹ studium. ² defatigatus. ³ commōdum esse (with acc. and inf.). ⁴ paratus. ⁵ ignorare. ⁶ ducēre. ⁷ posse. ⁸ humanitas. ⁹ distribuēre. ¹⁰ ut. ¹¹ infirmus. ¹² aliunde. ¹³ parēre. ¹⁴ communicare cum aliquo. ¹⁵ quae. ¹⁶ fides (ablative). ¹⁷ prudentia. ¹⁸ parvus animus. ¹⁹ deflagrare. ²⁰ constare (according to § 416). ²¹ lenis. ²² doctrina. ²³ inānis. ²⁴ excellēre (according to § 403). ²⁵ non esse nescium. ²⁶ incurrēre in (according to § 403). ²⁷ reprehensio. ²⁸ (according to § 403). ²⁹ quiescēre. ³⁰ laces- sēre. ³¹ proferre. ³² popularis (friend of people). ³³ dirimēre. ³⁴ defor- mis. ³⁵ putare (verbal adjective). ³⁶ rectus.

(5) We hope to be at home in the month of January. You must¹ love me, not mine, if we would be true friends. Whoever distrusts² the perpetuity of his possessions, must always fear, that he will sometime³ lose them. King Philip was in fear, that he should lose his life. So far were our soldiers from being put in confusion⁴ by this slaughter⁵, that, on the contrary, they were still more incited and inflamed⁶ with anger. I feared I should enlarge your work, while I wished to lessen⁷ it. It will be found, that those who are considered as gods, have ascended⁸ to Heaven from among men. I would hear why you are dissatisfied⁹ with him, who alone, I believe, has seen the truth. I did not fear, that I could not support¹⁰ your innumerable kindnesses towards¹¹ me.

¹ oportēre. ² diffidēre. ³ aliquando. ⁵ perturbare. ⁶ clades. ⁸ accen-
dēre. ⁷ minuēre. ⁸ proficiisci. ⁹ non probare. ¹⁰ sustinēre. ¹¹ in.

ORATIO OBLIQUA.

419. The words, precepts and opinions of another are either stated in such a manner as to undergo no change, or so, as to depend upon the *verbum dicendi*, which introduces a speaker making his own statement,— in which case, the discourse assumes the form of *narrative*.

Discourse which undergoes *no change*, and is *independent* of the *verbum dicendi*, is called the *oratio recta*; e. g. Cicero said: *Then all justice was violated by the wickedness of abandoned citizens; my household gods were filled with anxiety. Consider in your own minds the results which have followed. Those who were the instigators of these offences have suffered the punishment they deserve.* In this example, we hear the speaker uttering his *own words, without any change*.

Discourse that is *changed*, and is made to depend upon the *verbum dicendi*, is called the *oratio obliqua*; e. g. Cicero said, *that then all justice was violated by the wickedness of abandoned citizens, that his household gods were filled with anxiety. They should consider in their own minds the results which followed*, etc. In this last example, we hear the speaker, not in his *own words*, but another narrates them as if in his name.

420. It will be seen, therefore, that the *oratio obliqua*, whether it be longer or shorter, is nothing else than a discourse depending upon a *verbum dicendi*, and that a single clause even, which we make dependent upon the verb by the conjunction *that*, is *oratio obliqua*; e. g. Cicero said, *that Catiline was an enemy of his country*,—instead of, Cicero said: “*Catiline is an enemy of his country*.”

In a continued discourse, we often begin the first principal sentence with *that*, and state all the others merely by the subjunctive or potential mode, as the above quotation from Ci-

cero shows; e. g. *They should consider in their own minds, etc.* Often, indeed, the first principal sentence is stated without *that*.

The following sentence may make the distinction between direct and indirect discourse still more manifest: *Thus born, and thus elected king, he has favored the meanest class of mankind, whence he himself is sprung; and the burdens, which were formerly common, he has laid on the principal citizens.* These words of Tarquin, speaking himself, would be thus rendered: *Ita natus, ita creatus rex, fautor infimi generis hominum, ex quo ipse est, omnia onera, quae communia quondam fuerunt, in primores civitatis inclinavit.* But when Livy, instead of introducing Tarquin as speaking in his own words, merely relates the sentiment which he expressed, he writes thus: *Ita natum, ita creatum regem, fautor in infimi generis hominum, ex quo ipse sit, onera, quae communia quondam fuerint, inclinasse in primiores civitatis.*—*Crombie's Gymnasium.*

It is necessary here, to distinguish the principal from the subordinate sentences.

1. Principal Sentences.

421. Principal sentences are those which contain the principal thought. They are either not preceded by a conjunction, or not by such as form an introductory sentence. Thus the conjunctions *for, hence, therefore, thus* and the like, form only principal sentences. On the contrary, the conjunction *but* forms either principal sentences, when it continues principal sentences, e. g. *He has indeed heard this, but he does not believe the report*, or intermediate sentences, when it continues introductory ones, e. g. *Since the body is mortal, but the mind is immortal.* So the particle *although* (*quamquam, etsi*) does not always form introductory, but also principal sentences.

422. Principal sentences contain either an *event*, which happens, has happened, or will happen; or a *command*, which, in *oratio recta*, the Latin puts either in the imperative or the subjunctive; e. g. Cicero said, *that then all justice was violated. They must consider.* Here the first clause contains an *event* in the form of a *narrative*, the second a *command*.

423. Since, therefore, after *verba dicendi*, according to § 377, *imperative sentences are expressed by ut, and where*

there is a *prohibition*, by *ne*, and on the other hand, *narrated events*, according to §§ 380 and 386, by the accusative with the infinitive, so in *oratio obliqua*, special reference must be had to this principle. Hence the words of Cicero just mentioned, are expressed: Cicero dixit, omnia tum jura polluta esse. Circumspicerent animo. Therefore it depends wholly upon the thought of the sentence, whether *ut* (*ne*) or the accusative with the infinitive is to be used.

424. Imperative sentences are indeed expressed by *ut*; but this conjunction is used at the most, only when such a sentence is the first in a discourse. But when this sentence follows another of a narrative kind, containing the accusative and infinitive, *ut* is omitted, and its imperative force is indicated only by the subjunctive; but the prohibiting *ne* cannot be omitted; e. g. The messengers announced to the Senate, *that the Aequi had pitched their camp in their territory, and had desolated their borders; that the Romans should come and bring aid to them*, Legati Senatui nuntiant, in agro suo Aequos castra posuisse, et fines suos depopulari (narrative), Roman i venirent sibique auxilium ferrent (imperative).

Parallel Examples.

ORATIO OBLIQUA.

The patricians exclaimed, *that they (the citizens) should go, and elect consuls from the plebeians, should transfer the auspices* (imperative); *that the patricians might by a decree of the people be dispossessed of their honors, but had this inauspicious law prevailed also against the immortal gods? that these had vindicated their own authority* (narrative). Patres fremunt, irent, crearent consules, transferrent auspicia (imper.); potuisse patres—PELLI, num—legem valuisse? Vindiisse ipsos sua numina.—

ORATIO RECTA.

The patricians exclaimed: “Go, elect consuls from the plebeians, transfer the auspices; the patricians may have been dispossessed of their honors, but has this inauspicious law prevailed also against the immortal gods? These have vindicated their own authority.” Patres fremunt: “Ite, creare consules, transference auspicia; potuerunt patres—PELLI, num lex valuit? Vindicarunt ipsi sua numina.

ORATIO OBLIQUA.

Hirtii necessarii fidem implorarunt Pompeii, praestaret, quod receperisset.—Dux dixit, omnia esse perdita; milites suae consularent.

ORATIO RECTA.

Hirtii necessarii fidem necessarii implorarunt Pompeii: praesta, quod receperisti.—Dux dixit: omnia sunt perdita; consulete, milites, vestrae saluti.

The *verbum dicendi*, which introduces the discourse, is sometimes of such a nature, that it seems to admit only one of the two kinds of sentences, i. e. either the narrative or imperative: e. g. *nuntiare*, to announce, admits only narrative sentences, *petere*, *orare*, to ask, only imperative ones. But very frequently the orator changes the train of his thought, and such a definite and more restricted verb is selected, only with reference to the first sentence. Therefore where the construction is changed, such a word as *dicens* or *orans* is understood; e. g. *Caesar entreated his soldiers, that they would fight bravely*; (saying) that victory could not be gained without the greatest exertion, *Caesar oravit milites acriter pugnarent*; (*dicens*) sine summa contentione *victoriam reportari non posse*. So in the example above, the word *nuntiant* is appropriate only to the accusative and the infinitive, and not to the subjunctives *venirent* and *ferrent*.

2. Subordinate Sentences.

425. Subordinate sentences are formed either by such conjunctions as designate introductory ones, e. g. *since*, *because*, *if*, *when*, *after*, etc., or by the pronoun *who*, *which*. Those formed by conjunctions are connected with a principal clause, and either precede it, as introductory sentences, or follow it as adjunct, or are inserted in it, as intermediate clauses.

In these subordinate sentences, the subjunctive is used exclusively, and therefore the conjunctions have here no influence upon the modes, because the language is wholly narrative. Examples: *My father said that he rejoiced that I had returned from my journey*, *Pater dixit, se gaudere, quod ex itinere redisse m.* — *Caesar said, that he would fortify the camp, after the enemy had been routed*, *Caesar dixit, se postquam hostes fuisse, castra muniturum esse*. So: *Ennius non censebat lugendam esse mortem, quam immortalitas consequetur*.

The tenses, which are used in subordinate sentences, and even in principal ones, which contain a command, depend

upon the tense of the *verbum dicendi*, which governs the whole discourse. The laws of the dependence of tenses must therefore determine whether a present or an imperfect, a perfect or a pluperfect should be used.

426. When the *verbum dicendi* is in the present or future, the prevailing tenses in what follows, are the present, perfect and future, according as the one or the other is necessary. The perfect here also takes the place of the future-perfect, because in *oratio obliqua* with the future-perfect, there is reference only to what is past. But if the present of the *verbum dicendi* is a historical present, e. g. *nuntiant* for *nuntiabant*, then in what follows, an imperfect also can be used instead of the present, and a pluperfect instead of the perfect. Hence both are often interchanged. Some examples : *Epicurus said, that, among all things which wisdom had provided for a happy life, nothing was more important than friendship,* dicit, omnium rerum, quas ad beate vivendum sapientia comparaverit, nihil esse majus amicitia. *Epicurus teaches, that every animal, as soon as it is born, seeks for pleasure, and avoids pain as much as it can,* E. docet, omne animal, simul atque natum sit, voluptatem appetere, et dolorem, quantum possit, a se repellere. *Liscus affirms, that he does not doubt, that, if the Romans should conquer (future-perfect) the Helvetii, they would deprive the Aedui of liberty,* L. proponit, se non dubitare, quin, si Helvetios superaverint Romani, Aeduis libertatem sint eruptri. *The Gauls send messengers to Crassus (to say), that he should send back their hostages, if he wished to receive his friends again,* Galli mittunt, si velit suos recipere, obsides sibi remittat. *Fabius wrote to Marcellus, either to come himself, or, if Nola detained him, to send Gracchus to him,* Fabius Marcello scribit, vel ipse veniret (veniat), vel, si eum Nola teneret (teneat), Gracchum ad se mitteret (mittat).

427. After a historical present or historical infinitive,

when they describe events in the narrative form, the Latins, for the most part, used the imperfect and pluperfect. On the contrary, when precepts, opinions and general principles are denoted, the present is followed by the present and perfect.

428. But when the *verbum dicendi* is in the imperfect, perfect or pluperfect, then the prevailing tenses, in what follows, agreeably to the dependence of tenses, are the imperfect, the pluperfect, and to denote what is future, the imperfect of the periphrastic conjugation. Then the pluperfect takes the place of the future-perfect, as does the perfect, according to § 426, where the *verbum dicendi* is a present. But to prevent confounding the imperfect and pluperfect, it must be remembered, when the one and when the other is to be used, since, in English, we sometimes use the latter, where the Latins cannot. The conjunctions *quum* (cum) and *dum*, both in the sense of *while*, cannot have a pluperfect, but only an imperfect. Some examples: *Scipio said, that great dissensions usually arose, when one demanded something of his friends, which was not just,* magna dissidia nasci plerumque, *quum aliquid ab amicis, quod rectum non esset, postularetur.* *The senators proclaimed, that no one should make Quinctius a consul; if any one should have made him such* (sunt. perf.), *they would not regard his vote,* ne quis Quinctium consulem faceret; *si quis fecisset, se id suffragium non observatueros.* Aristotle relates, that while Eudemus was on his way to Macedonia, he came to Pherae, *quum in Macedonia iter faceret,* Pheras venisse. *Caligula boasted to Caesonia after she awoke, that he had done great things, while she had been (or was) asleep,* se magnas res gessisse, dum meridiaret (not meridiasset).

Finally, the Latins often put a present instead of the imperfect, and a perfect instead of the pluperfect, for the purpose of expressing and exhibiting with more vivacity, that something must happen, or must have happened; and especially is this done, when not an actual event, but a general remark applicable at all times, is introduced in the discourse.

Some further Remarks.

429. (1) Questions belong either to the principal or the subordinate sentences.

To the principal sentences belong those questions which may be called *oratorical*,—which the spirited orator introduces, without wishing an answer, because he himself imagines one in his own mind. Therefore, they are only *interrogative exclamations*, or expressions of *wonder*, and could be expressed with less vivacity without an interrogative, either affirmative or negative; e. g. *Who doubts this?* *cui dubium esse?* *What use is it to shut up the harbor?* *quid attinere claudi portum?* *For what slave were ever chains the punishment of falsehood?* *cui servo unquam mendacii poenam vincula fuisse?* *Would they not hope to be able to ascend the Capitolium?* *nonne se speraturos Capitolium ascendere posse?* When such principal sentences are in the form of a narrative, they stand in the accusative with the infinitive. Sometimes interrogative pronouns precede, sometimes interrogative particles. Some historians, however, as Julius Caesar, seem to have preferred the subjunctive to the infinitive.

But to subordinate sentences belong the *actual questions*, to which the speaker expects an answer. Hence they are also joined to *verba dicendi*, and depend upon them; therefore, their verb stands in the subjunctive, as something yet *uncertain* to the speaker; e. g. The senators ordered that it be proposed to the people: *Do you wish and command* (whether they wished and commanded), *that war should be commenced?* *vellet ne, juberent ne.* The consul asked the Fetiales: *Shall war be declared on king Antiochus himself* (whether war should be declared on king Antiochus himself)? or — *Consul ad Fetiales retulit, ipsine regi Antioco bellum indicere tur.*

If questions in *oratio recta* are already dependent questions in the subjunctive, they remain so in *oratio obliqua*.

430. (2) The pronoun *qui* properly forms *intermediate* or *parenthetical sentences*, by which a preceding thought is to be completed and more definitely explained, and therefore these are not independent sentences; but when *qui* stands for *et hic, nam hic*, and is only a formally connecting word, and the clause contains the ground and reason of the preceding statement, then it can form principal sentences; —especially is this the case when *qui, quae, quod*, does not refer to a single word of the preceding sentence; e. g. *There is no greater evil than the desire of wealth, and the struggle for glory and honor, from which (for from this) the most bitter enmities have often arisen, ex quo inimicitiis maximis saepe extitisse.* *Your city, like a bulwark, opposes the enemy, near which the royal fleet has twice suffered shipwreck, apud quam classes—fecisse.* *Bettius named Lucullus, by whom Fannius had usually been sent to him, a quo solitum esse ad se mitti Fannium, and then Domitius, whose house had been fixed upon (as the place) from whence to break forth, cuius domum constitutam esse, unde eruptio fieret.* Yet similar passages in Cicero and others are found, in which we expect the same treatment of sentences as principal, and nevertheless they are treated as relative, and stand in the subjunctive. Upon many passages, opinions are divided, especially since many sentences may be represented both as *principal* and *subordinate sentences*.

431. (3) As *qui*, *quae*, *quod* often forms an independent principal sentence, so also the conjunctions *quia* and *quippe* analogous to it in signification, and standing for *nam* (although they have no *qui* with them, for with *qui* they take only the subjunctive), moreover *quam* and *elsi*, often form independent principal sentences and take the place of *nam*, *etenim* and *tamen*; e. g. *The Campanians were more hostile to everything which bore the Roman name, than any other people. Therefore, he kept them shut up within the walls, because (for) whoever had escaped by any means, wandered through the country, like wild beasts, and tore in pieces and destroyed whatever fell in their way*, *ideo se tenere eos; quia, si qui evasissent aliqua, velut feras bestias, per agros vagari, et lanicare et trucidare, quocumque obvian detur.* Here *quia* does not refer to *ideo*, otherwise the subjunctive must have been used, for the sentence *because*, etc. does not give a reason of the immediately preceding sentence, but simply expands the first principal sentence, and *quia* takes the place of *nam*, and thus forms an independent principal sentence. The conjunction *quippe*, when not followed by *qui* expressing a reason, has, in oratio obliqua, only the accusative and the infinitive, because it is always used merely to connect one principal sentence with another; e. g. *The Fundani and the Formiani had not been excited to rebellion by them, for they could be satisfied with their own strength, if they desired war, quippe minime poneire se virium suarum, si bellum placeat* (Liv. 8, 23).

The use of the particles of comparison, *quemadmodum* and *ut* (*sicut*) with the accusative and the infinitive, where *ita* or *sic* follows, is also worthy of notice. The last sentence with *ita* or *sic*, as an actual principal sentence, requires the accusative with the infinitive, but the first does not. For it is only when in both sentences but one subject is spoken of, and the actions of both sentences fall within the same time (so that the relation is expressed by *as well — as*; *not only — but also*; *on the one hand — on the other*), that both sentences are in the accusative with the infinitive, because then the first also is regarded as an independent principal sentence; e. g. *As he would consider the treaty as broken, if she was not given up to him, so he would return her inviolate to her friends, when she was given up, quemadmodum, si non dederatur, proupto se foedus habiturum, sic deditam inviolatam ad suos remissurum* (Liv. 2, 13). If, on the contrary, the particle *as* (*quemadmodum*, *ut*) with the following *so*, signifies *in the same manner as*, then the sentence is treated as a merely subordinate sentence belonging to another, and the verb is put in the subjunctive; e. g. *As he anew and repeatedly appealed to the people, so he anew and repeatedly summoned him before the judge, proinde ut ille iterum ac saepius provocet, sic se iterum ac saepius judicem illi ferre* (Liv. 3, 57). Yet when there is a real comparison drawn from nature, the sentence is sometimes treated as a general, principal sentence, standing independent, and is expressed by the accusative with the infinitive; e. g. *As some animals never become tame, so the heart of this man is cruel and implacable, ut feras quasdam nunquam mitescere, sic inimitem et implacabilem ejus viri animum esse* (Liv. 33, 45).

432. (4) The classical writers use the verb *inquam* almost exclusively in direct discourse, and *aio* in indirect. Hence, in changing direct discourse to indirect, the verb *aio* must be substituted for *inquam*, and in changing the indirect to the direct, *inquam* for *aio*. *Aio* can be

used in *direct discourse*, only when *ut* is placed before it ; e. g. *Plato says, Philosophy is nothing else than a gift of the gods*, philosophia, ut ait Plato, nihil est aliud ; but without *ut*, the idea must be expressed : *Philosophiam ait Plato nihil esse aliud*, or : *Philosophia, inquit Plato, nihil est aliud*.

433. (5) Vocatives can be introduced into *oratio obliqua*, only by a change of case ; e. g. *Quirites, resume that disposition* ; in *oratio obliqua*, *that they should resume that disposition*, illos repeterent animos Quirites.

Interjections must be wholly omitted in *oratio obliqua* ; but words of asseveration, e. g. the ancient *Hercule*, are introduced into *indirect discourse* ; e. g. *And it was truly to be wondered at, et Hercule mirandum fuisse*.

434. (6) It is important to notice the use of the reflexive and demonstrative pronouns in *oratio obliqua*. According to the rules given above, §§ 110 and 115, the reflexive refers to the *speaker* and those for *whom* he speaks ; the demonstrative, on the contrary, is used in reference to all *subordinate persons*. But if the speaker gives his own words in a narrative form, the *first person* remains in everything which refers to him.

It is to be remembered, also, that the words *he, she* or *they*, when they refer to the *speakers*, are to be expressed by *se*. Yet when many principal sentences, which have for their subject *he, she* or *they*, follow one another, it is sufficient to use the pronoun with the first only.

If, by the use of the pronouns, there would be doubt to whom they referred, it is better to use the name of the persons, who are denoted by the pronouns ; e. g. *He had delivered the Falerii into their* (the Romans) *hands*, Falerio se in manus Romanis (for *eis*) tradidisse. Further ; that which is *present* to the speaker, and which he expresses by *hic* or *iste*, is *past* to another, who narrates it. Hence, in *oratio obliqua*, *ille* or *is* is generally used instead of *hic* and *iste*. Therefore, it is said : *This is not the first day of his fidelity*, non illum primum diem fidei suae esse, not *hunc*. So also *even now* in such discourse is expressed by *etiam tum*, not by *etiam nunc* or *etiam nunquam*.

The *indirect narrative form of discourse* prevails in the first part of the following examples for practice ; then follows a series of examples, from which narrative sentences are to be formed.

Examples on §§ 419—434.

(1) Dicearchus says, the soul is absolutely¹ nothing ; neither in a man nor in a beast is there a soul, and all that power by which we either do² or perceive anything, is diffused³ alike⁴ in all living bodies, nor is it separable⁵ from the body.—Simonides, while at table, was requested to go out (being* told) that two young men were standing at the door, who wished to speak with him.—Orgetorix persuaded the Helvetii to⁶ depart⁷ from their territory⁸ with all their effects⁹; (saying) it was very easy for them to obtain¹⁰ the government of all Gaul, since they excelled¹¹ all in valor.—Caesar replied to the am-

bassadors of the Helvetii, that he would appoint a day for deliberation¹²; that they should return the thirteenth of April¹³, if they wished anything.—Scipio said, that, in a situation¹⁴ so disastrous, there must be daring¹⁵ and action, and that they should immediately go with him, armed.—Polyaenus said, he praised them, that they had taken arms promptly¹⁶; but he would praise them still more, if they would use them, only¹⁷ when forced by the last¹⁸ necessity.—Scipio said, that great and generally just contentions¹⁹ arise²⁰, when something is demanded by friends, which is unjust²¹. Scipio told the Senators, if they would appoint²² his brother L. Scipio to the province of Greece, that he would go with him as legate.

¹ esse oīnno nihil (is — nothing). ² agēre. ³ fundi. ⁴ aequabiliter. ⁵ separabilis. ⁶ (omitted in Latin). ⁷ ut. ⁸ exire. ⁹ fines. ¹⁰ potiri. ¹¹ praeſtare. ¹² deliberare. ¹³ Idus Aprilis. ¹⁴ tantum malum (situation so disastrous). ¹⁵ audēre (part. in dus). ¹⁶ impigre. ¹⁷ nisi. ¹⁸ ultimus. ¹⁹ dissidium. ²⁰ nasci. ²¹ non rectus. ²² decernēre.

(2) The senators cried out¹ in indignation², that, if there were magistrates in the state, there would have been no assembly³, except⁴ one commanded by the state⁵. Now the state was dispersed and divided⁶ into a thousand curiae and assemblies⁷. Truly⁸, a single man, such⁹ as Appius Claudius was, would have scattered¹⁰ those assemblies¹¹ in the twinkling of an eye¹².—Tullus cried¹³ out to his horsemen with a loud¹⁴ voice, to¹⁵ return; that there was no need of fear¹⁶; that, at his command, the Albanian army wheeled¹⁷ round, for the purpose¹⁸ of assaulting¹⁹ the Fideni.—Tanaquil addressed²⁰ the people from the upper²¹ part of the house, (telling²² them) to be of good courage²³; that the king had been stunned²⁴ by a sudden²⁵ blow²⁶, that the weapon had not descended deep²⁷ into his body, that he had already come to himself²⁸ and she confidently hoped²⁹ that they would see him the next day. In the mean time, they should obey Servius Tullius; he would discharge³⁰ the duties³¹ of the king.—I exhorted the king to use the royal prerogative³² against those who plotted³³ for his life, to punish³⁴ those who must³⁵ be punished, and to use the protection³⁶ of my army, as a terror to those who are in fault³⁷; (saying) that all would perceive, as soon as³⁸ they could learn the decree of the Senate, that I would assist³⁹ him, if it was necessary.

¹ claimare. ² indignans. ³ concilium. ⁴ nisi. ⁵ publicus (one — state). ⁶ dissipatus. ⁷ concio. ⁸ profecto. ⁹ qualis (such as). ¹⁰ discutere. ¹¹ cecus. ¹² in momento temporis. ¹³ acclainare. ¹⁴ clarus. ¹⁵ ut. ¹⁶ trepidatio. ¹⁷ circumduci. ¹⁸ ut. ¹⁹ invadere in aliquem. ²⁰ aliqui. ²¹ superior.

²¹(omitted in Latin). ²²animus. ²³sopitus. ²⁴subitus. ²⁵ictus. ²⁶alte.
²⁷redire. ²⁸confidere (confidently hoped). ²⁹propediem. ³⁰obire. ³¹muna-
 nera. ³²jus. ³³insidiatores (those who plot). ³⁴poena afficere. ³⁵ne-
 cessere esse. ³⁶praesidium. ³⁷esse in culpa. ³⁸quum (as — as). ³⁹pra-
 sidio esse.

(3) The ambassador of the Helvetii spoke¹ with Caesar in the following manner²: If the Roman people would make peace with them, they would go to that quarter³ and there remain⁴, where Caesar had appointed⁴ and wished them to remain; but if he should continue⁵ to pursue them with war, he should remember not only the old defeat⁶ of the Roman people, but also the ancient⁷ bravery of the Helvetii. That he had unexpectedly⁸ attacked⁹ one district¹⁰, when those, who had gone over the river, could not assist their friends; therefore he should neither attribute too much to his bravery, nor despise¹¹ them; they had learned¹² from their parents and ancestors, that they should contend more by bravery than by art, or (than) they should rely¹³ upon treachery¹⁴. Therefore he should not permit¹⁵, that that place, where they had encamped¹⁶, should receive¹⁷ its name or be remembered¹⁸ by¹⁹ a defeat²⁰ of the Roman people.

¹agere. ²ita (following manner). ³ea pars. ⁴esse. ⁵constituere.
⁶perseverare. ⁷incommōdum. ⁸pristinus. ⁹improviso. ¹⁰pa-
 gus. ¹¹despicere. ¹²ita discere. ¹³niti. ¹⁴insidiae. ¹⁵committēre.
¹⁶consistere. ¹⁷capere. ¹⁸prodere memorie. ¹⁹ex. ²⁰internecio.

(4) Caecinna told his soldiers, that their only deliverance was in arms; but that these must be used¹ with judgment², and they must remain within the rampart³, until the enemy should come up⁴ nearer; then they must break⁵ forth on⁶ all sides; by this sally⁷, they would come to the Rhine. But if⁸ they should flee, still more forests and deeper⁹ marshes¹⁰ would remain¹¹; but honor and glory would be the lot¹² of the conquerors.—Romulus visited¹³ the indignant Sabine-women and informed¹⁴ them, that this had happened by the arrogance of their fathers, who had refused¹⁵ marriage¹⁶ to their neighbors; yet they (the women) would live in matrimony, and share¹⁷ in all their fortunes and in the state. That they should only mitigate¹⁸ their anger, and give their affections¹⁹ to them, to whom fate had given their bodies. That friendship²⁰ had often afterwards arisen from injury, and they would have* so much better husbands²¹, because each would strive²² to his utmost²³ to allay²⁴ desire for their parents²⁵ and country.

¹ temperare. ² consilium. ³ vallum. ⁴ succedēre. ⁵ erumpere. ⁶ ab.
⁷ eruptio. ⁸ quod si. ⁹ profundus. ¹⁰ palus. ¹¹ superesse. ¹² obtinēre.
¹³ circumire. ¹⁴ docēre. ¹⁵ negare. ¹⁶ connubium. ¹⁷ in societate esse.
¹⁸ mollire. ¹⁹ animus. ²⁰ gratia. ²¹ uti. ²² vir. ²³ eniti. ²⁴ pro se (to his
utmost). ²⁵ explēre. ²⁶ (genitive).

(5) After the death of Augustus, Tiberius discoursed¹ much, in the senate, of the extent of the empire, with the modesty peculiar² to himself. He said, that the mind³ of the divine Augustus alone⁴ was capable⁵ of so great a weight⁶, that he (Tiberius), whom Augustus had called to share⁷ his duties, had learned by experience⁸, how arduous and subject⁹ to fate is the charge of ruling¹⁰ everything. Hence, in a state, which had such an abundance¹¹ of distinguished men, they should not impose¹² all things on one; if several would unite¹³ their labors, they would perform¹⁴ the duties¹⁵ of the state more easily.

When, after the death of Augustus, disturbances¹⁶ had broken out¹⁷ in Pannonia, Blesus said with much art, that the wishes¹⁸ of the soldiers must not be conveyed to Caesar by sedition and insurrections¹⁹. Neither the ancient²⁰ soldiers had demanded²¹ of their commanders anything so unprecedented²², nor had they themselves, of the deceased²³ Augustus; that the cares of the new sovereign had been increased²⁴ at an unfavorable time²⁵. Yet, if²⁶ they endeavored²⁷ to seek²⁸ it peacefully²⁹, why did they think³⁰ of violence? They should appoint³¹ ambassadors, and should give commands to them in his presence³².

¹ disserēre. ² suus (peculiar to himself). ³ mens. ⁴ solus. ⁵ capax.
⁶ moles. ⁷ in partem. ⁸ experiri. ⁹ subjectus. ¹⁰ regēre. ¹¹ refertam esse
(to have abundance). ¹² deferre ad aliquem. ¹³ sociare. ¹⁴ exsēqui.
¹⁵ munia. ¹⁶ motus. ¹⁷ exoriri. ¹⁸ desideriū. ¹⁹ turba. ²⁰ vetus. ²¹ ex-
postulare. ²² novus. ²³ divus. ²⁴ onerare. ²⁵ parum in tempore (at —
time). ²⁶ si tamen. ²⁷ tentare. ²⁸ tendēre. ²⁹ in pace. ³⁰ meditari. ³¹ de-
cernēre. ³² coram (in presence).

(6) The ancients relate a very wonderful dream: When two friends¹, from Arcadia, were travelling² together³, and had come to Megara, one took lodgings⁴ with a landlord⁵, the other with a friend⁶. When (ut) they had retired to rest⁷ after eating⁸, at midnight⁹, while asleep, it seemed to the one who was entertained¹⁰ by his friend, that the other asked him to come to his help¹¹, because the landlord was preparing to kill him. He, frightened¹² by the dream, at first rose up; afterwards, when he had collected himself, and thought that he must consider¹³ the dream as nothing, he laid down again¹⁴.

Then it seemed to him, while asleep¹⁴, as though¹⁵ the same asked him, because^{**} he had not come to help him while alive¹⁶, not to suffer¹⁷ his death to be unrevenged¹⁸; that he had been murdered by the landlord, and placed¹⁹ in a cart, and that dung²⁰ had been thrown²¹ over²² him; he asked him to be at²³ the gate in the morning²⁴, before the cart went out of the city. Moved by this dream, he was present²⁵ at the gate early with the teamster²⁶; he asked him, what he had in the cart; he frightened, fled,—the dead man was dug²⁷ out, and the landlord, after the affair had been made known²⁸, was punished²⁹.

¹ familiaris Arcas (a friend from A.). ² iter facere. ³ una. ⁴ devertire ad aliquem. ⁵ caupo. ⁶ hospes. ⁷ quiescere. ⁷ coenatus (after eating). ⁸ concubia nox. ⁹ in hospitio esse (who — friend). ¹⁰ subvenire. ¹¹ perterritus. ¹² visum pro nihilo habere (dream — nothing). ¹³ recumbere. ¹⁴ dormiens. ¹⁵ ut. ^{**} quoniam. ¹⁶ vivus. ¹⁷ pati. ¹⁸ inultus. ¹⁹ injicere. ²⁰ sterlus. ²¹ conjicere. ²² supra. ²³ adesse. ²⁴ mane. ²⁵ praesto alicui esse. ²⁶ bubulcus. ²⁷ eruere. ²⁸ patefacere. ²⁹ poenas dare.

II. Examples of direct discourse, from which narrative discourse is to be formed.

(1) Caesar Octavianus wrote back¹ to Tiberius, who asked for a Grecian client: I will not grant² it, unless I shall have persuaded³ myself, with my own eyes^{*}, how just reasons you have to ask. Drusus read aloud⁴ the letter of his father, in which it was written: I have⁵ a special concern for the bravest legions, with whom I have waged very many wars. As soon as my mind shall have recovered⁶ from grief⁷, I will deliberate⁸ with the fathers respecting⁹ your demands¹⁰. In the mean time, I have sent my son to grant¹¹, without delay¹², what can be immediately allowed¹³; the rest must be reserved¹⁴ for the Senate.

Tiberius, who wished Germanicus to return from Germany, reminded him in many¹⁵ letters (saying): Return to the appointed¹⁶ triumph: you have fought successful and great battles; but remember¹⁷ also the dreadful¹⁸ losses¹⁹ which the wind and floods have occasioned²⁰. I was sent nine times²¹, by the god-like²² Augustus, to Germany, and have accomplished²³ more by wisdom²⁴ than by force. The Cherusci and the other people of the insurgents²⁵ can be left²⁶ to their internal²⁷ dissensions²⁸, if the resentment²⁹ of the Romans is satisfied.

¹ rescribere. ² dare. ³ persuadere. ⁴ praesens (with — eyes). ⁴ recitare. ⁵ esse. ⁶ requiescere. ⁷ luctus. ⁸ agere. ⁹ de. ¹⁰ postulatum. ¹¹ concedere. ¹² cunctatio. ¹³ tribuere. ¹⁴ servare. ¹⁵ creber. ¹⁶ decretus. ¹⁷ meminisse. ¹⁸ saevus. ¹⁹ damnum. ²⁰ inferre. ²¹ novies. ²² divus. ²³ perficere. ²⁴ consilium. ²⁵ rebellis. ²⁶ relinquere. ²⁷ domesticus. ²⁸ dissidium. ²⁹ ultio Romana (resentment of Rom.).

(2) The inhabitants¹ of Praeneste, enemies of the Romans, pitched² their camp not far from the river Allia, and boasted³ to* each other: We have occupied a place unfortunate⁴ for the city Rome. There will be fear and flight from this place, as⁵ there was in the Gallic war. For, if the Romans fear⁶ the day, distinguished⁷ by the name of this place, how much more will they tremble⁸ before Allia itself. Truly, the fierce⁹ forms¹⁰ of the Gauls, and the sound of their voices will be before their eyes and ears.

The Romans, on the contrary, said¹¹: Wherever the Latins are, there we know well, that they are such¹² as we have conquered¹³ at lake Regillus, and, by a peace of a hundred years, held** subjects¹⁴ to us. The place, distinguished by the memory of the defeat, will rather incite¹⁵ us to efface the remembrance of the disgrace¹⁶, than cause¹⁷ fear, that any ground will be inauspicious¹⁸ to our victory. Nay¹⁹, if the Gauls even²⁰ should present²¹ themselves to us in this place, we would fight as we fought at Rome, in regaining²² our country, and as at Gabii, on the following day, we effected²³ that no enemy, who had entered²⁴ the city²⁵ Rome, could carry²⁶ home the news of success²⁷ or defeat.

¹ Praenestini. ² ponere. ³ jactare. ⁴ inter. ⁴ fatalis. ⁵ ac. ⁶ timere. ⁷ insignis. ⁸ reformidare. ⁹ trux. ¹⁰ species. ¹¹ (omitted). ¹² is. ¹³ devictus. ^{**} tenere. ¹⁴ obnoxius. ¹⁵ irritare. ¹⁶ dedecus. ¹⁷ facere. ¹⁸ nefastus. ¹⁹ quin. ²⁰ ipse. ²¹ offerre. ²² repetere. ²³ efficere. ²⁴ intrare locum. ²⁵ moenia Romana. ²⁶ perferre. ²⁷ secunda adversaque fortuna (success or defeat).

(3) When Scipio had conducted¹ very kindly² towards the Spaniards, the multitude which had crowded³ around him, with great unanimity⁴ called him king. Then, when he had requested* silence by a herald, he said: My greatest name is Imperator, by which my soldiers have named me; the name of king is, in other places⁵, great; in Rome, intolerable; I have⁶ a kingly heart: if you consider that noble⁷ in the mind⁸ of man, think⁹ so in silence¹⁰, but forbear¹¹ the use¹² of that word¹³.

Answer was made¹⁴ by the Gauls to the ambassadors of the Romans: Although we, for the first time, hear of the name

of the Romans, yet we believe, that you are brave men, since the inhabitants¹⁵ of Clusium, in their trouble¹⁶, have asked¹⁷ your aid ; and because¹⁸ you have preferred¹⁹ to protect your allies by an embassy²⁰, rather than by arms, we by no means refuse²¹ the peace which you offer, if the inhabitants of Clusium, who have more²² land than they cultivate, will give²³ to us who are in need²⁴, a part of their territory²⁵ ; otherwise²⁶ peace cannot be obtained²⁷. We wish not only to hear and answer in your presence²⁸, but, if the land is refused²⁹ us, we will also³⁰ fight in your presence, in order that you may be able to announce³¹ at home, how far the Gauls excel³³ other men in bravery.

¹ gerere. ² perhumaniter. ³ circumfusus (which—him). ⁴ consensus. ⁵ facere. ⁶ alibi. ⁷ esse in aliquo. ⁸ amplius. ⁹ ingenium. ¹⁰ judicare. ¹¹ tacite. ¹² abstinere. ¹³ usuratio. ¹⁴ vox. ¹⁵ dare. ¹⁶ Clusini. ¹⁷ res trepida. ¹⁸ implorare. ¹⁹ quoniam. ²⁰ malle. ²¹ legatio. ²² aspernari. ²³ latius. ²⁴ concedere. ²⁵ egere (participle.) ²⁶ fines. ²⁷ aliter. ²⁸ imperare. ²⁹ coram. ³⁰ negare. ³¹ idem. ³² nuntiare. ³³ praestare.

(4) Hannibal sent messengers to the petty kings¹ of Gaul with this commission : I wish in person² to speak with you; either do you come³ nearer to Illiberi, or I will come⁴ to Ruscino, that the meeting⁴ may be easier from a near⁵ place; for I will receive you early at my tent, nor will I delay⁶ to come to you myself. For I have come, as a friend⁷ of Gaul, not as an enemy, and, if you permit⁸ it, I will not draw⁹ the sword, until I shall have come to Italy.

Alexander, at a feast, dared to disparage¹⁰ the actions of his father. The famous battle at Chaeronea was my work¹¹, said he, and the glory of the great achievement has been taken¹² from me by the envy¹³ and jealousy of my father ; I protected¹⁴ the body of my father by my shield, and his assailants¹⁵ were killed¹⁶ by my hand. This he never willingly¹⁷ acknowledged¹⁸, since he was unwilling¹⁹ to owe²⁰ his life to his son.

¹ regulus. ² ipse. ³ accedere. ⁴ procedere. ⁵ congressus. ⁶ propinquum (near place). ⁷ procedere cunctanter (delay t. come). ⁸ hospes. ⁹ per me licet (I permit). ¹⁰ stringere. ¹¹ obterere. ¹² opus (in genitive). ¹³ adimere. ¹⁴ malignitas. ¹⁵ protegere. ¹⁶ ruere. ¹⁷ occidere. ¹⁸ aequo animo. ¹⁹ confiteri. ²⁰ debere (indicative).

(5) When the report of Alexander's death had been brought to the wife of Darius, she lamented¹ the dead and the living at the same time. For who, said she, will now care² for me and my daughter ? Who will be another Alexander ? Twice³

have we been taken prisoners ; twice have we lost⁴ the king-doin. Truly⁵, we shall find no one who regards⁶ us.

After Syracuse was taken, Titus Manlius spoke as follows in the Senate : War must be waged with tyrants ; Syracuse, that most beautiful and famous city, the granary⁷ and formerly⁸ the treasury⁹ of the Roman people, has been destroyed¹⁰, by whose munificence and gifts, the state has been assisted and embellished¹¹ in many times of difficulty¹², and, finally¹³, in this very¹⁴ Punic war. If king Hiero, the most faithful adherent¹⁵ of the Roman government, should arise¹⁶ from the grave¹⁷, with what countenance¹⁸ could one show¹⁹ to him Syracuse or Rome, since, when²⁰ he has beheld the half-destroyed²¹ and plundered²² country, he will see, as he enters²³ Rome, the spoils of his country at the vestibule of the city.

¹deplorare. ²agere curam. ³itärum. ⁴excidere aliqua re. ⁵utique. ⁶respicere. ⁷horreum. ⁸quondam. ⁹aerarium. ¹⁰perire. ¹¹ornare. ¹²tempestas (time of difficulty). ¹³denique. ¹⁴ipse. ¹⁵cultor. ¹⁶existere. ¹⁷inféri. ¹⁸os. ¹⁹(see § 218). ²⁰ubi. ²¹semirütus. ²²spoliatus. ²³ingrediens locum.

(6) Gracchus, when surrounded¹ by the multitude of the enemy, sprang² from his horse, and ordered³ the soldiers to do the same, and animated them, (saying) : Let us honor⁴ by our bravery the only thing which⁵ fortune has left⁶ to us. But what is left to some few, who have been surrounded in a valley, shut⁷ in by woods and mountains, but⁸ death ? The only question⁹ now is, whether we, delivering¹⁰ up our bodies like beasts*, shall be slain¹¹ unrevenged¹², or whether, stained¹³ with their blood, we shall fall among the accumulated¹⁴ corpses of the expiring enemy.—Furius impaired¹⁵ the authority of his colleague Camillus, when he said : Wars are designed¹⁶ for young men. Courage grows¹⁷ and decays¹⁸ with the body ; from a most efficient¹⁹ warrior²⁰, Camillus has become a loiterer²¹, and he, who at his coming²², was wont to capture²³ camps and cities, in the first assault²⁴, now sits inactive²⁵ within²⁶ the walls, and wastes²⁷ time. The measures²⁸ of an old²⁹ man are inefficient³⁰ and weak³¹ ; and he has not only lived³² long enough, but has obtained³³ glory enough. Of what use³⁴ is it to suffer³⁵, that the strength of the state, which ought³⁶ to be immortal, should grow feeble³⁷ with a single mortal body ?

¹circumvenire. ²desilire. ³jubere. ⁴co honestare. ⁵quod unum (the only thing which). ⁶reliquis facere. ⁷septus. ⁸praeter. ⁹id modo re ferre. ¹⁰praebere. ¹¹modo. ¹²trucidare. ¹³inultus. ¹⁴perfundere. ¹⁵cumulare. ¹⁶elevare. ¹⁷dare. ¹⁸vigere. ¹⁹deflorescere. ²⁰acerrimus.

²⁰ bellator. ²¹ cunetator. ²² adveniens. ²³ rapere. ²⁴ impetus. ²⁵ esse re-sidem. ²⁶ intra. ²⁷ terere. ²⁸ consilium. ²⁹ senex. ³⁰ frigere. ³¹ torpere. ³² vitae satis alicui esse. ³³ esse. ³⁴ attinere. ³⁵ pati. ³⁶ decere. ³⁷ conse-nescere.

(7) After Perseus had given a successful battle to the Roman consul, and the king was holding¹ a consultation² respecting his situation³, some friends ventured to give him counsel, to use his good fortune⁴ for⁵ the stipulation of an honorable⁶ peace. A man, prudent and deservedly⁷ successful, said they, knows⁸ how⁹ to be moderate¹⁰ in his success*, and not to trust¹¹ too much the serenity¹² of present fortune. Send ambassadors to the consul, to¹³ renew an alliance on¹⁴ the same conditions¹⁵, on which your father Philip obtained peace of the Romans. A war is not ended more honorably than after¹⁶ so remarkable¹⁷ a battle. But if even then, the Romans, according to their natural¹⁸ stubbornness¹⁹, reject²⁰ just²¹ conditions, gods and men will be witnesses both of your moderation and of their insolent²² haughtiness.—When Alexander had treated the captive wife of Darius very kindly²³, she thus said: O king, you deserve²⁴ that we should entreat²⁵ for you what we once entreated for our Darius; and you are worthy, since you have surpassed so great a king, not only in fortune, but also in equity. You, indeed²⁶, call me mother and queen; but I confess that I am your slave²⁷. It concerns²⁸ you very much to show²⁹ rather by kindness³⁰ than by cruelty, what you have the power³¹ to do towards us.

¹ habere. ² consilium. ³ summa. ⁴ fortuna secunda. ⁵ in (with acc.). ⁶ honestus. ⁷ merito. ⁸ esse alicujus. ⁹ (omitted in Latin). ¹⁰ modum imponere. ¹¹ confidere. ¹² serenitas. ¹³ (see § 311). ¹⁴ in (with acc.). ¹⁵ lex. ¹⁶ a. ¹⁷ memorabilis. ¹⁸ insitus. ¹⁹ pertinacia. ²⁰ aspernari. ²¹ aequa (just conditions). ²² pervicax. ²³ humaniter. ²⁴ iuereri. ²⁵ precari. ²⁶ quidem. ²⁷ famula. ²⁸ interesse. ²⁹ testari. ³⁰ clem-entia. ³¹ licere (to have the power).

(8) Because many embassies of Antiochus had before been in vain¹ sent to the Romans, respecting² peace, a new ambassador appeared, who said: I have³ confidence⁴, that I shall obtain⁵ what former ambassadors have not obtained. For hitherto many cities in Asia Minor and Lysimachia in Europe, have been a bone⁶ of contention in those quarrels⁷. Of these, the king has given⁸ up Lysimachia, that it may not be said, he possesses anything in Europe. But those cities, which are in Asia, he is ready to surrender, and whatever⁹ others the Romans wish to claim¹⁰ from the royal dominion, because they have been on our side¹¹; the king will also pay¹²

half¹³ of the expense to the Roman people. The rest of his speech was nearly as follows: Remember human destiny¹⁴, and be sober¹⁵ in your prosperity¹⁶, and do not aggravate¹⁷ the misfortune¹⁸ of another. Terminate your kingdom by Europe; this is already immeasurable. Single parts¹⁹ can be more easily obtained²⁰ by conquest²¹, than the whole²² can be held²³ together. But if you wish to take²⁴ a part of Asia also, only²⁵ do not bound²⁶ your kingdom by doubtful²⁷ lands. For the sake²⁸ of peace and union, the king will permit²⁹ his moderation to be surpassed³⁰ by Roman cupidity.

¹ nequicquam. ² de. ³ esse. ⁴ fiducia. ⁵ impetrare. ⁶ jactari (to be — contention). ⁷ disceptatio. ⁸ cedere aliqua re. ⁹ si quis ali:us. ¹⁰ vindicare. ¹¹ partium alicujus esse. ¹² praestare. ¹³ pars dimidia impensarum. ¹⁴ res humanae. ¹⁵ moderari. ¹⁶ fortuna. ¹⁷ urgere. ¹⁸ fortuna aliena (misfortune of another). ¹⁹ singula (single parts). ²⁰ parare. ²¹ acquirere. ²² universa. ²³ tenere (held together). ²⁴ abstrahere. ²⁵ dummodo ne. ²⁶ finire. ²⁷ dubius. ²⁸ causa. ²⁹ pati. ³⁰ vincere.

SUPINES.

435. Both the supines are considered as parts of the verb. But only the first in *um* can be properly so viewed, inasmuch as it alone can govern the same case as its verb. On the contrary, the second, in *u*, never governs a case, and actually occurs only in a very few verbs. Neither of them admits an adverb; we cannot say, *suppliciter rogatum*, *to ask in a suppliant manner*; *patienter toleratu*, *to be borne patiently*. Their use is as follows:

First Supine in um.

436. This supine depends upon a verb, which implies a *motion*, *in order to do something*. The English verb which denotes the *design* of that motion, is expressed by the supine in *um*. We indicate this design by *to* or *in order to*. This supine governs the same case as the verb; e. g. *I have come to ask you*, *te oratum (rogatum)*; *Hannibal was recalled to defend his country*, *patriam defensum*. It also occurs without an accusative; e. g. *I give him a place to sit*, *eum sessum recipio*; *the boys go to play*, *lusum*

eunt; *the cattle go to drink*, aquatum; *let us go to bathe*, lavatum.

437. Sometimes also it can be rendered by a substantive or a preposition and a substantive, especially after the verb *to go*; e. g. *To go a fishing*, piscatum ire; *to go a hunting*, ire venatum; *to bed*, dormitum or cubitum; *into exile*, exulatum; *to go for plunder*, praedatum ire, etc.

438. The verb *ire* with the supine, denotes *the aiming at something*, *to wish*, *to be ready*, *to make preparations*, *to intend*, *the resolution to do something*; it is often used, also, for the simple verb from which the gerund comes, to express the idea with more vivacity and force; e. g. *Why do you hurry to destruction*, or *why will you destroy yourself?* Curte is perditum? instead of perdes; *dishonest men will take (are ready to take) from the deserving their rewards*, eruptum eunt; *preparations are making to besiege the city*, urbem oppugnatum itur. Hence *ire* with the supine can be used in many connections for the future active infinitive; e. g. *I believe that he will besiege the city*, eum urbem oppugnatum ire, for oppugnaturum esse. So also, the future infinitive passive consists of *iri* and the supine.

According to the preceding remarks, verbs of *motion*, when they denote *that for which* the action is done, often take a supine. But it is to be noticed, that verbs of *haste*, *festinare*, *properare*, *accelerare*, *maturare* are exceptions, as they never admit a supine, but take the infinitive simply; e. g. *Scipio hastened to besiege the city*, oppugnare festinavit; *Caesar hastened to return to his country*, redire properavit.

439. As even this first supine occurs but seldom, not being found at all in many verbs, and in others, although it has an apparent existence, not being used, other constructions supply its place.

Here belong :

(1) Constructions with *ut*, for which also *qui* can be substituted; e. g. instead of *veni vos liberatum*, *I came to free you*, it can also be written, *ut (qui) vos liberarem*. *Antiochus sent ambassadors thither to manage the affair better*, *ut (qui) rem melius agerent*; where, on account of *melius*, a supine is never admissible.

(2) With *causa* and the genitive of the gerund, or the verbal adjective, where it occurs; e. g. *Vos liberandi causa*, or *vestri liberandi causa*; *rem melius agendi causa*, or *rei melius agendae causa*.

(3) With *ad* and the accusative of the gerund or verbal adjective; e. g. *Ad vos liberandos*, *ad rem melius agendum*.

(4) With the future active participle, which must refer to the person, whether expressed by a substantive or pronoun, who is described as *wishing to do* something, e. g. *Vos liberaturus* (*I who would wish to free you*); *legatos rem melius acturos* (*ambassadors who would wish to do*).

Care should be taken, not to use this supine after words which do not imply motion, although the *purpose* is denoted by *to* or *in order to*; e. g. *He gave me a book to read*, not *lectum*; *I have selected this country-seat to spend my life there*, not *actum*.

Second Supine in u.

440. This supine, which occurs still less frequently than the other, and which we translate sometimes actively, and sometimes passively, is used:

(1) With some adjectives, in order to show more definitely, *in what respect* the adjective belongs to the substantive, which it qualifies. Thus, e. g. *Auditū, lectū, cognitū, dictū*, signify, *in respect to hearing, reading, knowing, saying or relating*. This supine depends on such adjectives as *worthy, useful, remarkable, easy, difficult, pleasant, unpleasant, credible, incredible, clear, dark, likely, fit, disgraceful, laudable, large*, etc.; e. g. *This book is useful to read, lectū utilis*

est; this wine is pleasant to drink, potu est jucundum; what is better to be avoided, what to be sought, quid est melius vitatu, quid petitu? Here, also, belong the substantives, *fas, nefas* and *opus*, which are so often used.

441. (2) With some verbs which denote a *removal* from some place or thing. But the few supines occurring in such connections, are evidently nothing but substantives; e. g. *To arise from bed, cubitu surgere; to return from hunting, venatu redire.*

442. Since this second supine occurs so seldom, and with most verbs is not used at all, its place can easily be supplied by another construction. Thus with *dignus* and *indignus*, *qui* is oftener used. Comp. § 309. The use of *ad* with the gerund particularly belongs here. Thus, in Cicero, *difficilis ad intelligendum*, for *intellectu*; *facilis ad judicandum*, for *judicatu*; *jucundus ad audiendum*, for *auditu*, and so others. Cicero says of *pain, which is difficult to be borne*, in one place, *difficilis per pessu*, in other places, *difficilis ad patiendum tolerandumque*.

Examples on §§ 435—442.

In panegyrics¹, it is most pleasant to hear the virtues of justice, clemency and generosity. Alexander determined to cross the Hyphasis, which was difficult to cross. The soldiers, who, for the purpose of forage², had gone too far, could not return. Whoever goes to bed at³ the tenth hour and rises at the fifth hour, follows⁴ the prescriptions of physicians. To go a hunting is a healthful exercise. It is an excellent precept of Quintilian, that parents should do nothing in the presence⁵ of their children, which is base⁶, nor say what it is disgraceful to hear. A common⁷ soldier, who had gone from the camp to fetch water⁸, found a concealed⁹ way to the fortress¹⁰, which was very difficult to ascend. Although everything which happens here, is painful¹¹ to hear, yet it is more supportable¹² to hear than to see it. The shorter a narration is, the more clear¹³ and easy to be understood¹⁴ will it be¹⁵. If the sleeping did everything they dream¹⁶, all who go to bed, ought to be bound¹⁷. Tarpeia, at that time, had perchance¹⁸

gone out of the fort, to fetch¹⁹ water for the sacrifice²⁰. The sons of Ancus went to Suessa Pometia into exile. Pain is something which is severe²¹, contrary to nature²² and hard to endure²³. A united²⁴ cry is something which is unimportant²⁵ to mention²⁶, but of great importance²⁷ in an engagement²⁸. When Virgil and Maecenas had come to Capua, the former went to sleep, but the latter to play. You came into these regions rather to weep²⁹ than to swim³⁰. How³¹ is it, Cassius? Shall³² we sit, although we have not come to annoy*, but to encourage you? The human mind can be compared with no other³³ than with God himself, if it is proper³⁴ to say this.

¹ laudatio. ² pabulari. ³ sub. ⁴ sequi. ⁵ coram. ⁶ foedus. ⁷ miles gregarius. ⁸ aquari. ⁹ opertus. ¹⁰ castellum. ¹¹ acerbus. ¹² tolerabilis. ¹³ dilucidus. ¹⁴ cognoscere. ¹⁵ fieri. ¹⁶ somniare. ¹⁷ alligare. ¹⁸ forte. ¹⁹ petere. ²⁰ sacra, -orum. ²¹ asper. ²² contra naturam. ²³ perpeti. ²⁴ congruens. ²⁵ parvus. ²⁶ dicere. ²⁷ momentum. ²⁸ res agenda. ²⁹ plorare. ³⁰ natare. ³¹ quid. ³² ire (with the interrogative *ne*). * flagitare. ³³ alias nullus. ³⁴ fas.

PARTICIPLES.

443. The Latin, like the English, has a present and perfect participle, the former active, denoting a *continued* or *contemporaneous action*, e. g. *a m a n s, loving*, the latter passive, including our perfect and compound perfect, denoting an action *completed* or *prior* to some other; e. g. *a m a t u s, loving, having been loved*. The Latin has no participle corresponding with the English comp. perf. active, except in deponent verbs; e. g. *locut u s, having said*. Besides the above, the Latin has a future active participle, and a passive verbal adjective or fut. pass. part. in *andus* or *endus*, which denotes what *must be done*. Deponent verbs have all the participles for the three different relations of time, present, past and future. Accordingly, from the verb *doceo* and *hortor*, the following participles come:

- (1) *D o c e n s, one who teaches, teaching ; h o r t a n s, one who exhorts, exhorting.*
- (2) *D o c t u r u s, one who will teach ; h o r t a t u r u s, one who will exhort.*
- (3) *D o c t u s, one who has been taught, had been, will have been ; h o r t a t u s, one who exhorted, has, had, will have.*

(4) *Docendus, one who must be taught; hortandus, one who must be exhorted.*

The verbal adjective has been treated above in its appropriate place. Here the usage of the other participles will be spoken of.

444. Participles abridge the discourse, as the English participles also show; for, *the singing bird enlivens the woods, is the same as the bird, when it sings* (which sings), *enlivens the woods.* Here the participle serves merely to explain or define the substantive.

445. Not only relative sentences with *who, which,* can be abridged by participles, but also such as begin with conjunctions, e. g. *since, if, when, because, while, after, although,* and the like, and properly form introductory sentences.

Sentences, also, connected by *and,* can be abridged, and, as will be shown in the sequel, many substantives governed by prepositions, can be changed into participial sentences, because they can be resolved and expressed by conjunctions with a verb.

446. In Latin, the participles unite *two sentences* in one. Where this is done, the case of the participle and the noun or pronoun with which it agrees, either *depends upon* a verb or another word in the sentence and is *governed* by them, or the participle with its noun or pronoun is *independent* of any other word. The English uses the former construction more frequently than the latter; e. g. *You heard me when I said this, me id dicente audivisti.* An example of the latter is: *te recte loquente, gaudeo, when you speak rightly, I rejoice,—*where the ablative *te* does not depend on *gaudeo.* *Two sentences*, therefore, are either connected with and are dependent on each other, or they are not. The former may be called *dependent*, the latter *independent sentences.*

447. When the subject of that sentence which can become a participle, that is, the subject of a participial sentence, is

repeated in the principal clause, and thus both sentences are in an intimate grammatical connection, they are *dependent* sentences, and therefore, even in English, can be abridged by a participle; e. g. *When I say something to you, you believe*, i. e. *you believe me saying something to you*. Here the subject *I*, refers to the word *me*, in the principal clause. *When I speak, my father beholds me*, i. e. *my father beholds me speaking*. Here also the subject *I*, refers to the word *me*, in the principal clause. Thus both sentences are connected with, and are dependent on, each other.

448. But when the subject of the participial sentence is *not* repeated in the principal clause, and so the two sentences do not stand in an intimate grammatical connection with each other, they are *independent* sentences, and, in English, are not usually abridged by a participle; *When I say anything to you, do not believe all*. *When you speak, let the other keep silence*. In both these examples, the subjects of the participial sentences, viz. *I* and *you*, are not repeated in the accompanying principal clauses. These introductory sentences, therefore, can indeed be abridged in Latin, but they form independent sentences, containing a complete idea in themselves.

The Latin usage will now be more definitely stated.

449. When participles are used, the conjunctions and relative pronoun *qui* are omitted, and the English verb becomes a participle, and such a participle as the sentence and connection require.

The tenses compounded with the auxiliary *sum*, omit the auxiliary and retain the participle. Hence *pater qui docet* (*docebat*), is equivalent to *pater docens*; *pater, qui docabit* (*docturus est*) = *pater docturus*; *pater, qui doctus est* (*erat, erit*) = *pater doctus*.

Since, as above remarked, participial sentences differ according to the difference of the sentences from which they are formed, this will now be considered more definitely.

(1) *Dependent (or united) Participial Sentences.*

450. Dependent participial sentences, therefore, are those whose subject is repeated in the principal clause, and thus the two form a whole. By rejecting the conjunction or the relative *who, which, one* sentence is formed of *two*, while the verb of the principal clause becomes the governing verb, and, hence, often changes the case of the subject. The subject, therefore, with its participle, is put in that case, in which the word referring to it in the principal sentence, stands; e. g. *When the sun rises, the Persian worships it*; or, *the Persian worships the sun, when it rises*. This is expressed in one sentence; *The Persian worships the rising sun*, Persa sole in orientem adorat.

When *two* sentences are thus brought into *one*, the word which now becomes superfluous, must be omitted, consequently all pronouns, which refer to a substantive that is now definite. But the substantive should not be separated too far from its participle, and should rather be placed before, than after it; e. g. *When you are dead, how will the bite of wild beasts injure you?* or; *How will the bite of wild beasts injure you, when, etc.?* Quid tibi mori tuo ferarum morsus obserit?

Such united sentences are formed:

451. (1) By the pronoun *who, which*, when it is in the nominative. As the participle contains that pronoun in itself, it is considered as a clause explanatory of that, to which the pronoun refers; e. g. *This could perhaps have happened to Hercules, who was the son of Jupiter*, Herculi Jovis satu edito. Many employ eloquence, which has been given by nature for the safety of man, to destroy the good, eloquentiam a natura ad salutem hominum daram.

452. When the pronoun *who, which*, is indefinite and is equivalent to *he, who*, i. e. *any one, such, those, who, or that or those, which*, these pronouns are omitted, because they are contained in the participle; for *docens* signifies *he, who teaches*, i. e. *any one, who*; e. g. *The knowledge of heavenly things gives enlarged views to those (indefinite) who behold the works of God*,

a f f e r t D e i o p ē r a c e r n e n t i b u s. *We readily yield to those who speak the truth, verum dicentibus facile cedimus; that which is lightly got, is lightly spent, male parta male dilabuntur.* So: *Imperaturus* (one who is to command) omnibus eligi debet omnibus. *Facilius est currentem* (one who is running) incitare quam commovere languentem (one who is faint). But when *who, which*, refers to a definite pronoun, e. g. *this, that* person or thing and the like, this pronoun must be used in Latin; e. g. *We must gratify him* (definite), *who, perhaps now for the first time, hears this, huic nunc hoc primum fortasse audienti.*

453. (2) Such sentences are also formed by conjunctions which mark introductory sentences, viz. *as, since, because, when, after, while, although*, etc. When the subjects of these introductory sentences are repeated in the principal sentences, with which they are connected, then they become *united* or *dependent* sentences; e. g. *When Masinissa heard this, he wept profusely, Masinissae haec audiendi lacrimae obortae sunt. When we look upon the heavens, it is certain to us that the world is the work of God, nobis coelum conscientibus certum est. The loss of time is irreparable, when it is spent in idleness, jactura temporis segnitie peracti. After Romulus died, Numa Pompilius succeeded him, Romulo mortuo (dative) successit N. P. The authority of these, even when they are dead, might continue to live! horum etiam mortuorum auctoritas!*

The following examples are of the same nature: *When the Athenians made known their distress, help was promised (promittere) them. What hope have (esse) you, when you stand here idle? After the enemy had been driven into the valley, the Romans surrounded (cingere) them. The Grecian language must be well understood by him, who wishes to read this book. The Romans levelled (aequare) Corinth with the ground, after it had been taken.*

(2) *Independent Participial Sentences.*

454. Independent participial sentences are those whose subject is not repeated in the principal sentence, and where,

consequently, each sentence stands by itself. The Latins abridge such sentences by the use of their independent ablative, which, on account of the completeness of the idea, is called *ablative absolute*. The ablative is particularly appropriate, because it denotes *time*, *cause*, and other relations. Here the subject and participle are put in the ablative, and the conjunction is omitted.

455. Such sentences are formed only by the conjunctions mentioned above (§ 453); e. g. *When the sun rises, the stars vanish, sole oriente.* *After Tarquin had been banished from Rome, Brutus was chosen consul,* *Tarquinio urbe expulso.* *Friendship prevails between good men and God, because virtue unites them, virtute conciliante.* *The Romans wished to fight, although Cicero opposed, Cicerone clamante.* *When the nature of all things is known, we are free from fear, omnium rerum natura cognita.*

Perfect passive participles in the neuter, are also used in the ablative absolute without a substantive; e. g. *audito, cognito*, etc., for *quum auditum, cognitum esset*. This is frequent in the historians. So also *auspicato, augurato*, for *quum auspicatum, auguratum esset, after the auspices, etc., had been consulted; sortito, when the lot was cast.* Cicero and others use these often in the ablative.

Remarks.

456. (1) As many of the foregoing examples show, participial sentences in Latin, can denote the various relations of *time*, *manner*, *cause*, *motive* or *purpose*, and *condition* or *concession*. For the sake of a complete and connected view of the subject, some examples are here added to illustrate each of these relations. (1) Time: e. g. *Plato died WHILE writing, scribes;* *AFTER the death of Trajan, Hadrian was made emperor, mortuo Trajano;* *Tiberius, WHEN he was about to cross the Rhine, sent over his provisions, trajecturus.* (2) Manner: *Socrates often uttered truth IN a jesting way, ride ns.* (3) Cause: *I assert nothing, FROM doubt and distrust of myself, dubitanus et mihi ipse diffidens;* *the Athenians alleged, that Alcibiades was unwilling to take Cyrene, BECAUSE he had been bribed by the king, corruptum noluisse;* *Caelius writes that Flamininus fell at Thrasimenus, BECAUSE sacred duties had been neglected (because he had neglected, or on account of his neglect of sacred duties), religione neglecta.* (4)

Motive or purpose : *The general retired to a hill to defend himself, se defensurus.* Comp. § 465. (5) Condition or concession : *Letters displease, if not delivered at a fitting time, non loco redditae; the greatest virtues must lie dormant, if pleasure rules, voluptate dominante; if (although) all be lost, yet virtue can sustain itself, perditis omnibus rebus.* *Laughter bursts out so suddenly, that we cannot restrain it, if (although or however much) we desire to, ut cupientes tenere nequeamus.*

(2) As there is no participle to mark past action in the active, and the sentences so expressed are often better in an abridged form, such active English sentences may be changed into passive ones, because the passive has a past participle ; for *is, quem amavimus*, is the same as *a matus a nobis; urbem, quam vidisti = urbem a te visam.*

When such a change takes place, different participial sentences arise, for the introductory sentence either does, or does not refer to its principal sentence ; consequently, the participial sentence is either united with the principal sentence as one, or it is expressed independently by the ablative absolute. It is here to be noticed, that, when the subject of the principal sentence occurs in both sentences, it is stated but once, in Latin, and is joined with the principal verb. Examples : *After Alexander had taken Thebes, he commanded it to be destroyed, i. e. Alexander, after Thebes had been taken by him, commanded it to be destroyed* (a depend. particip. sentence), *Alexander Thebas captas dirui jussit* (the words by him to be omitted). *Many employ eloquence, which nature has given for the safety of man* (which has been given by nature), *to destroy the good, eloquentiam a natura ad salutem habtam.* *Our ancestors lost this field, which they received from their fathers, hunc agrum acceptum a patribus suis.* *Cleombrotus, after he had read Plato's book* (after Plato's book had been read), *threw himself from the wall into the sea, lecto Platonis libro.* *After Horatius had killed the three Curiatii, and had lost his two brothers, he returned home victorious, i. e. H., after the three Curiatii had been killed by him, and his two brothers had been lost, returned, occasis tribus Curiatiis et duobus amissis fratribus.*

457. It is very easy to translate such a sentence actively, when a deponent verb can be used, because then there is a past participle with an active sense, therefore, no change into the passive is needed ; e. g. *After the consul had taken much booty, he returned to his camp, consul ingenti praeda potitus in castra rediit.* *A fierce contest threatened with the Vejentes, who began the roar, cum Vejentibus bellum exorsis.* And so *e conspeariri* can be used for *videre* or *conspicere*; *opitulari, auxiliari*, for *opem ferre*; *loqui* for *dicere*; *hortari, exhortari*, for *monere, admonere*; *nancisci* for *accipere*; *pati, perpeti*, for *tolerare, sustinere*; *egredi, for exire*; *digrēdi* for *discedere*, and many others.

The following participial forms have such an active sense : *cenatus* (*coenatus*), *after he had supped*; *juratus*, *when he had sworn*; *injuratus, conjuratus, pransus and potus*; e. g. *When the boys had taken their supper, they went to bed, pueri cenati cubitum ierunt, for quum cenassent.*

458. (3) When two principal sentences are connected by *and*, and one of these can be resolved by *which* or a conjunction, a participial

sentence can be formed from it. When a participle is used, *and* is omitted; e. g. *Decius left the curia, and mounted his horse*, i. e. *Decius, after he left the curia, mounted*—, *Decius egressus curia or curia relicta equum ascendit*. *The ambassadors were plundered by robbers, and came trembling into the city*, *Legati a latronibus & poliati veniunt*. *The ambassadors asked for friendship, and were answered*, *Legatis amicitiam petentibus responsum est*. *The consul praised the soldier, and then honored him with many presents*, *consul militem collaudatum multis praemis ornatus*. *The Egyptians embalmed their dead and buried them*, *Egyptii mortuos in unclos condabant*. *The Latins took the Volsci, and led them to Rome, comprehensos Volscos duxerunt*. *An opportunity was given me, and I went to Rome*, i. e. *when an oppor., etc., occasione oblata R. profectus sum*. *Alexander threw away his arms, and plunged into the cold stream*, *A. projectis armis se dejecit*.

459. (4) When of two or more introductory sentences with a conjunction, or of two or more intermediate sentences with the pronoun *who*, *which*, only one can be abridged by the participle, the conjunction or pronoun must remain with the one which is not changed, but the connective *and* must be omitted; e. g. *Fabius said to Salinator, who had fled into the fortress and was boasting*—, *Salinatori, qui fugerat in arcem, glorianti dixit Fabius*. *When the feelings of both parties had been irritated, and the people had become courageous, the senators dared, irritated utriusque partis animis, quam spiritum plebs sumpisset, patres ausi sunt*. *When they were deliberating respecting the conditions, and the ambassadors inquired what were the demands of the people, Icilius asked*, *quam de conditionibus ageretur, quaerentibus legatis, quae*—.

460. (5) But when both introductory sentences connected by *and*, are changed into participial sentences, then the word *and* (*et*) must not connect them, if the sentences are of a different kind, that is, if one sentence has an ablative absolute, while the other is united in one with the principal sentence; e. g. *The Carthaginians put Regulus to death by watching, after they had cut off his eye-lids, and confined him upon a machine*, *C. Regulum resectis palpebris illigatum in machina vigilando necaverunt*. On the contrary, two ablatives absolute are connected by Cicero and others, sometimes with, sometimes without *et*; e. g. *After Xerxes had built a bridge over the Hellespont, and dug through Athos, he went on foot over the sea*, *X. Hellesponto juncto, Athone perrosso, mare ambulavit*. *After Horatius had killed the three Curiatii, and had lost his two brothers*—, *Horatius, occisis tribus Curiatiis et duobus amissis fratribus*.

461. (6) The conjunctions *velut*, *ut*, *quasi*, *tamquam* (as if), remain, even when the verb is changed into the participle; e. g. *You live as if you would live always*, *vivitis tamquam semper victuri*.

It must also be noticed, that the genitive plural of the future active participle is to be carefully avoided on account of the harshness of its sound, except in *futurus*, *a*, *um*. Hence, not *auditrorum*, *audituarum*.

Too many participial sentences, in succession, should be avoided, that the clearness or fulness of the idea may not be lost by abridging it, and that the period may not be injured. Moreover, no sentence,

which is to be made emphatic by its relative pronoun or conjunction, can be expressed by a participle.

Other remarks will be made on the participle hereafter. But previously, the following examples on the rules already given, may be written.

Examples on §§ 443—461.

(1) Even¹ death will not terrify² the wise man, who fears nothing in³ the world. When we die, the hope of immortality consoles us. When Servius Tullius reigned at Rome, Pissistratus was tyrant at Athens. The Stoicks call bravery the virtue which contends⁵ for right. Lucretius triumphed over⁵ the Aequi and Volsci, who had been conquered, and his legions followed him, when he was triumphing. The goodness⁶ of God, that cares even for beasts, which are without* reason, is so great, that it cares for even the smallest beast. O schools, you are the only hope of the country; when you are healthful⁷ the state is health'ul, when you are sickly⁸, the hope of the country expires. It is known⁹, that Julius Caesar, when he saw the head of Pompey torn¹⁰ off, shed¹¹ tears. When we consider¹² the aspect of the world, the thought¹³ must¹⁴ immediately come to our minds, that there is a being¹⁵ greater than man. When Romulus was king, almost constant¹⁶ wars were waged with the neighbors. Many wander¹⁷ about without¹⁸ a purpose, and seek business. How¹⁹ can those who fear death, which threatens²⁰ hourly²¹, be composed²²? Will you rather²³ believe that man, when he has sworn²⁴ in his own case²⁵, or these, who have not sworn in another's?

¹ neque (even not). ² terrere. ³ omnium rerum. ⁴ propugnare. ⁵ de. ⁶ benignitas. ⁷ carere. ⁸ valere. ⁹ constare. ¹⁰ avellere. ¹¹ fundere. ¹² contemplari. ¹³ cogitatio. ¹⁴ necesse esse. ¹⁵ natura. ¹⁶ continuus. ¹⁷ vagari. ¹⁸ carere. ¹⁹ qui. ²⁰ impendere. ²¹ omnibus horis. ²² animo consistere. ²³ potius. ²⁴ jurare. ²⁵ lis.

(2) When men observe¹ certain bounds² in food, dress and other expenses*, frugality is ascribed to them; and when they exceed³ these, luxury. Antony first gave to Caesar, when he wished⁴ to disturb⁵ all things, a cause for waging⁶ war against his country. When the Greeks of Europe had taken⁷ the sea-coast⁸ of Asia, they surrounded⁹ it with cities. After Pompey the Great had taken¹⁰ Jerusalem¹¹, he touched¹² nothing of the renowned temple. Polyidus foretold the death of his son, when he went¹³ to Troy. Why are trees planted¹⁴, which will give

nothing but shade? What anxiety¹⁵ would trouble¹⁶ the wicked¹⁷, if the fear of punishment were removed¹⁸? When this has been granted¹⁹, that also must be granted. When Quintius Cincinnatus, the deliverer of a besieged²⁰ consul and army, had been called²¹ from the plough, he became²² Dictator, and, after²³ he had laid²⁴ down the fasces, returned again to his forsaken²⁵ estate²⁶; and so Fabricius returned, after Pyrrhus had been driven from the bounds²⁷ of Italy, and Curius returned again to his paternal lands²⁸, after he had subjugated²⁹ the Sabines. Caesar saved³⁰ these men of Pompey, and sent them home. The faults of Dolabella were unknown³¹ to me, because I did not inquire³². Two Arcadians supped³³ together³⁴ in a tavern³⁵, and when they had supped, they laid down³⁶. When physicians have found the cause of a disease, they think the cure³⁷ has been found.

¹ servare. ² modus. ³ cultus. ⁴ transire. ⁵ cupere. ⁶ perturbare. ⁷ inferre. ⁸ occupare. ⁹ ora maritima. ¹⁰ cingere. ¹¹ Hierosolyma, -orum. ¹² attingere. ¹³ proficiisci (compare § 71. 4). ¹⁴ conserere. ¹⁵ sollicitudo. ¹⁶ vexare. ¹⁷ impius. ¹⁸ tollere. ¹⁹ dare. ²⁰ obsidere. ²¹ vocare. ²² venire. ²³ (contained in partic.). ²⁴ deponere. ²⁵ relinquere. ²⁶ herediolum. ²⁷ fines. ²⁸ rus. ²⁹ domare. ³⁰ conservare (part.). ³¹ occultus. ³² inquirere. ³³ coenare. ³⁴ simul. ³⁵ caupona. ³⁶ discumbere. ³⁷ curatio.

(3) The dignity¹ of Sparta's government was shaken² by the battle at Leuctra³, and fell⁴. When⁵ an important letter had been given to Archias, while he was sitting⁶ at⁷ the feast, he put it under⁸ his cushion⁹, sealed¹⁰ as it was, and said: Serious¹¹ matters I postpone¹² till the morning. The tyrant, Alexander, seized¹³ Pelopidas and threw¹⁴ him into prison. Epaminondas made war¹⁵ upon the former¹⁶ and recovered¹⁷ the latter. Every man, when he has committed¹⁸ a crime¹⁹, is tormented²⁰ by the stings²¹ of conscience; for the crime pursues²² him, when he sits²³ at the table, floats²⁴ before his mind, when he sleeps²⁵, and rises²⁶ anew²⁷, when he wakes²⁸. Should a tempest arise, he fears he shall be struck with lightning²⁹; he does not draw³⁰ a peaceful breath³¹, because conscience always keeps the crime before³² him, and threatens³³ him with punishment which will follow. Alexander besieged Miletus, which resisted him, and when he had taken³⁴ it, he marched³⁵ to Halicarnassus; and, after he had taken all the intervening³⁶ cities, he besieged this strongly-fortified³⁷ city, and having conquered it without trouble, levelled³⁸ it with the ground³⁹. Then, when he had subjugated⁴⁰ all Caria, he went⁴¹ to Lycia, and from thence, when he had subdued⁴² the rebellious people of Pisidia, marched⁴³ against Darius and entered⁴⁴

Phrygia. Shortly after he came to Tarsus, and there the clearness⁴⁵ of the river invited the king, who was covered⁴⁶ with dust and sweat, to^{*} wash⁴⁷ his body, still warm. Therefore, he put off⁴⁸ his dress, and, in the sight⁴⁹ of the army, descended into the river. But, when he had entered⁵⁰, his limbs⁵¹ began to stiffen⁵² from the sudden⁵³ chill⁵⁴. His servants carried⁵⁵ him, nearly senseless⁵⁶, to his tent⁵⁷. Although the disease increased⁵⁸ from day to day, yet by the skill⁵⁹ of his physician, in a short time, he was restored⁶⁰, and went against the army⁶¹ of Darius. After Pompey had conquered Mithridates in a battle, he compelled him to flee to the Bosphorus.

¹ majestas. ² percurre. ³ Leuctrius (at Leuctra). ⁴ concidere. ⁵ Archias quum ei —. ⁶ accubare. ⁷ in. ⁸ subjecere (part.). ⁹ pulvinus. ¹⁰ signare. ¹¹ serius. ¹² differre. ¹³ comprehendere. (part.). ¹⁴ conjicere. ¹⁵ bello persequi (part.). ¹⁶ ille. ¹⁷ recuperare. ¹⁸ patrare. ¹⁹ scelus. ²⁰ conficere. ²¹ morsus. ²² exagittare. ²³ accumbere. ²⁴ observari. ²⁵ dormire. ²⁶ insurgere. ²⁷ denūo. ²⁸ evigilare. ²⁹ de coelo tangere. ³⁰ ducere. ³¹ spiritus. ³² objicere (to keep before). ³³ comminari. ³⁴ potiri. ³⁵ proficiisci. ³⁶ interjacere. ³⁷ munire. ³⁸ aequare. ³⁹ solun. ⁴⁰ subigere. ⁴¹ tendere. ⁴² vincere. ⁴³ contendere. ⁴⁴ ingrēdi. ⁴⁵ liquor. ⁴⁶ perfundere. ⁴⁷ ut. ⁴⁸ abluere. ⁴⁹ deponere (part.). ⁵⁰ conspectus. ⁵¹ artus. ⁵² rigere. ⁵³ subitus. ⁵⁴ horror. ⁵⁵ deferre. ⁵⁶ non satis compos mentis (nearly senseless). ⁵⁷ tabernaculum. ⁵⁸ ingravescere. ⁵⁹ peritia. ⁶⁰ restituere (part.). ⁶¹ copiae.

Other Remarks on the Participles.

462. (1) Although the verb *esse* has no participle in the present and imperfect, yet even when this is wanting, a substantive and adjective, a pronoun and adjective, or two substantives, are often considered as participial sentences. English clauses, containing the pronouns *who*, *which*, and the verb *to be*, or such as contain the introductory conjunctions, *then*, *while*, *after*, etc., can frequently be translated by such participial sentences. The subject of the participial sentence with its predicate (whether it be a substantive or an adjective), either agrees in case with the word to which the subject refers, or, when the sentence is independent, is put in the ablative absolute. The predicate word, therefore, whether it be a substantive or an adjective, must here supply the place of the omitted participle. Examples: *I began to honor him, when he was not yet very old*, eum nondum admodum grandem natu. *Let us honor nature, since she is our teacher and guide*, naturam nostram magistram et ducem. *Modesty must be preserved, especially when nature herself is our teacher and guide*, prae-*teritum natura ipsa magistra et duce*. *This happened when I was a boy* (when we were boys), puero me (pueris nobis).

463. (2) Instead of many conjunctions, in English we use prepositions; and instead of verbs, substantives. Such prepositions are: *in, during, after, upon, with, by*, etc., when they can be resolved by a

conjunction and a verb; e. g. *at his death*, i. e. *when he died*, *mōriens*; *after his death*, i. e. *after he died*, *mōrtuus*.

Many substantives contain not precisely a verb, but a personal substantive with the verb *to be*; e. g. *the consulship*, i. e. *to be a consul*; e. g. *in my consulship*, i. e. *when I was consul*. So others: *leading direction*, i. e. *to be a leader*, etc. In like manner, the word *advice* is often translated by *adviser*, *auctor*, *suasor*, — *impulse* by *impulsor*, *assistance* by *adjutor*, and so with others.

Other substantives contain the force of an adjective; e. g. *presence* — *present*, *praesens*; *absence* — *absent*, *absens*; *life* — *living*, *vivus*. So we express *with consent*, by *libens* or *non invitus*; *with full consent*, *the greatest willingness*, *libentissimus*; *against my will*, *invitus*; *with knowledge*, *sciens*; *without knowledge*, *inscius*, *insciens*.

The resolution by a conjunction will show the necessary changes to be made in translating such a sentence.

Some Examples.

The most honorable men were accused in their absence (when they were absent), *honestissimi homines absentes*. *Pythagoras came to Italy in the reign of Superbus* (when S. was reigning), *Superbo regnante*. *The conqueror must do many things, even against his own will*, *victori etiam invito multa facienda sunt*. *This happened against my will* (while I did not wish it), *me invito*. *This was done with your approbation*, *vobis approbantibus*; *with the approbation of gods and men*, *diis hominibusque approbantibus*; *before my eyes*, *me inspectante*; *during the consulship of Caninius*, *no one breakfasted* (while C. was consul), *Caninio consule*. *I know not whether Capio died during the life, or after the death, of his father* (when his father was alive, etc.), *vivone patre suo*, *an mortuo*. *This happened in my questorship* (when I, etc.), *me quaestore*. *This took place under my direction and counsel*; *me duce et me auctore*. *Defend me in my absence*, *me absente*. *I consoled myself by believing*, *existimans*. *Who does not esteem Aristides after his death?* *Aristidem mortuum?* *I believe that nothing is better*, *with the exception of wisdom*, *excepta sapientia* (abl. absol.). *In the beginning of spring* (*ineunte vere*), *the buds put forth*. *The son bought the house with the permission and advice of his father*, *permittente patre ac suadente*.

464. (3) Other prepositions, however, remain in Latin, because their force cannot be expressed by a participle; but yet the English substantive can be translated by a participle of the verb having the same signification as the substantive. Such prepositions are: *before*, *ante*; *on account of*, *ob*, *propter*; *until*, *to*, *ad*, *usque ad*; *for*, *pro*; *from*, *after*, *since*, *a*, *ab*; *concerning*, *out of*, *de*, *ex*. Also *after* (*post*) is often used, when a limitation of time precedes, or when *post* signifies *since*, and something is stated, which took place in the period subsequent. But with all of these, the perfect passive participle is used, only when an event already actually accomplished is spoken of; for when a *continuing* or *future* action is spoken of, the verbal adjective or participle in *andus* or *endus* is used.

Some Examples.

Homer and Hesiod lived before the building of Rome, ante Romanam conditam. A few years after the expulsion of the kings, paucis annis post reges expulsoſ. After the recovery of Capua, there was more anxiety for Spain than for Italy, post receptam Capuam. From the building of Rome to the birth of Christ, ab urbe Roma condita (usque) ad Christum natum. The regal government of Rome continued from the building of the city, till its liberation, ab condita urbe ad liberatam. On account of the fortification (completed) of the city Verrugo, ob communiam urbem Verruginem. On account of fortifying (not yet done) this city, ob communieandam hanc urbem. For the restoration (completed) of your health, pro valetudine tua restituta. For the restoration (not yet done) of your health, pro valetudine tua restituenda.

465. It was said above, when treating of the supine, § 430, that the purpose of a person who wishes to do or is to do something, can also be denoted by the future active participle. When, on the contrary, the person or thing is passive, i. e. when something is to be done to them, the verbal adjective or participle in *andus* or *endus* is used, which has been treated at length above, § 362. The sentences, in both instances, are dependent. In English, we often translate participles in *andus* and *endus* actively, especially after verbs signifying *to give, commit to, intrust to.*

Some Examples.

The Athenians sent ambassadors to Delphi, to consult the oracle, legatos oraculum consulturos. A hundred knights were sent to plunder, centum equites praedaturi missi sunt. Faustulus gave Romulus and Remus to Acca, to bring up, Romulum et Remum nutritios. Romulus and Remus were given to Acca, to bring up, Romulus et Remus nutritiendi.

466. (5) Also sentences with *that*, which depend upon a substantive, can be formed by the genitive of a participle. Here also one must consider, whether an action already *accomplished*, or yet *unaccomplished*, is spoken of. In the former case, the perfect participle is used; in the latter, the verbal adjective in *andus* or *endus*.

Some Examples.

The report, that the city Vaga had been taken, nuntius urbis Vagae captae. The consciousness, that danger is incurred by guilt, conscientia contracti culpa periculi. Pompey gave Cicero evidence, that he had saved his country, testimonium patriae conservatae.

467. (6) So the preposition *without*, with a substantive or participle, is translated by a participle with *non*, or another negative word. *Without anything*, *is nihil, non quidquam*; *without any*, *nullus*. Instead of *non*, *nisi* can also sometimes be used, when there is already a negation in the sentence. Comp. also § 538.

Some Examples.

Kind nature gives the flowers food and clothing without their labor, floribus non laborantibus. Many men eat without being hungry, non esurientes. I never drink without being thirsty, nunquam nisi sitions bibo. Our tears often flow without our will, nobis nolentibus. Whoever acts without regard to God and virtue, will seldom act right, nulla Dei virtutisque habita ratione. The nature of man pursues knowledge without being induced by any advantage, nullo emolumento invitata. The mother sent away her son, without suspecting any evil, nihil mali suspicans. Without having used any violence, nulla adhibita vi.

Examples on §§ 462—467.

(1) By the advice¹ and under the direction² of a deserter³, the Brutii blockaded⁴ Crotona. It was the Persian Magi, by whose advice Xerxes commanded⁵ the temples of Greece to be set on fire⁶. Innumerable arts have been invented, under the instruction⁷ of nature. The Stoicks changed⁸ the names⁹, without changing¹⁰ the things. Ancient historians¹¹ tell us, in whose consulship¹² the embassy of philosophers came from Athens to Rome. Tell¹³ me, whether Crassus died during the lifetime¹⁴ of his father, the ex-consul Publius Crassus. The glory of great deeds¹⁵ will be taken from no one in his life, and the knowledge¹⁶ of the best¹⁷ arts, not even after his death¹⁸. All the rest of the booty, the commanders gave to the soldiers to plunder¹⁹. Few have been found, since²⁰ the human race was born, who, for their country, have exposed²¹ their lives to the weapons of the enemy, without the promise²² of reward. Many men range²³ through houses, theatres and markets²⁴. If you ask one of these, at his departure²⁵, Whither do you wish to go? he will answer you, Truly, I know not. Without knowing²⁶ why they live, they ramble about and seek employment. The Lacedemonians, from jealousy²⁷ of the Athenians, and from their indignation²⁸ that they had lost the command of the sea²⁹, attempted³⁰ to rouse³¹ many of the cities of Greece against them. The emperor Constantine, who, after the murder of Licinius, had usurped the government, conquered³² the Goths, who were plundering³³ Thrace, and obtained³⁴ a glorious victory over³⁵ the Barbarians. Two years after peace was obtained³⁶, Indian ambassadors came to him with gifts. With your assistance³⁷, we will resist this³⁸ detestable³⁹ barbarity. As long as these two live⁴⁰, we shall never have a republic. Alexander went to

Jupiter Ammon to consult respecting⁴¹ his origin. The captives were hewn in pieces⁴², in the presence⁴³ of many thousand men. Piso and Gabinius took⁴⁴ the two provinces, Syria and Macedonia, as⁴⁵ a reward for⁴⁶ the destruction⁴⁷ of the state, wholly against their will⁴⁸. All this happened without my knowledge⁴⁹ and will⁵⁰. I hope, that this will yet happen⁵¹ in our life¹⁴.

¹ auctor. ² dux. ³ profuga. ⁴ corona cingere. ⁵ jubere. ⁶ inflammare.
⁷ docere. ⁸ immutare. ⁹ vocabulum. ¹⁰ commutare. ¹¹ auctor. ¹² consul.
¹³ certiorem facere. ¹⁴ vivus. ¹⁵ res. ¹⁶ scientia. ¹⁷ bonus. ¹⁸ mori. ¹⁹ di-
 ripere. ²⁰ post. ²¹ objicere. ²² proponere. ²³ pererrare. ²⁴ forum. ²⁵ ex-
 ire. ²⁶ insciens. ²⁷ invidere. ²⁸ indignari. ²⁹ imperium maritimum.
³⁰ tentare. ³¹ concitare. ³² perdormare. ³³ populari. ³⁴ reportare. ³⁵ a-
³⁶ parere. ³⁷ adjutor. ³⁸ iste. ³⁹ immānis. ⁴⁰ vivus. ⁴¹ de. ⁴² occidere.
⁴³ inspectare. ⁴⁴ occupare. ⁴⁵ pro. ⁴⁶ (omittend). ⁴⁷ evertēre. ⁴⁸ invitus
 (superlative). ⁴⁹ imprudens. ⁵⁰ invitus. ⁵¹ esse.

(2) The Athenians sent Cimon to Asia, to recover¹ the confederate cities, which the Persians had taken². When he had conquered many cities in Lycia and Caria, he dispersed³ the fleet of the Persians, which fought bravely under the command of Tithraustes. When Germanicus was returning from Egypt, a violent disease attacked⁴ him. The terrible⁵ violence of this strengthened the conviction⁶, that⁷ he had received* poison from Piso. Amulius gave the boys, born of Rhea Silvia, to his servants to throw⁸ them into the Tiber. But they were preserved⁹, as the Tiber by some accident¹⁰ had overflowed¹¹ its banks. When they had been left by the retiring stream, the shepherd Faustulus found them, by whom they were brought to Laurentia, his wife, to be educated. Cicero made journeys in the company¹² of his freed-man, Tiro. The enemy made an assault¹³ without our men fearing anything. Verres stole two silver goblets, in the presence of the guests. It is known, that Diogenes, when Alexander came to Corinth to him, remained sitting¹⁴, without paying any regard¹⁵ to the majesty of the king. Many years before the right of citizenship¹⁶ was given at Heraclea, the renowned poet, Archias, settled¹⁷ at Rome. The Roman people, under the command¹⁸ of Lucullus, opened¹⁹ Pontus, which was defended²⁰ by the very²¹ nature of the country; the army of the Roman people, under the direction²² of the same, routed²³ innumerable armies of the Armenians; also the enemy's fleet was sunk²⁴, when Lucullus fought. That Fulvius, who waged war with the Aetolians in company²⁵ with Ennius, did not hesitate²⁶ to consecrate the spoils²⁷ of Mars to the Muses.

Something useful will grow²⁸ from fertile²⁹ land³⁰, even without the cultivation³¹ of any one. Virgil consented³², that the *Aeneid* should be published by the poets, Tucca and Varus, but without adding or changing any³³ thing. The earth spontaneously³⁴ gives³⁵ various food³⁶ to animals, without their labor. It has happened³⁷ to me and Cotta, contrary to our hope³⁸, but according to the wish³⁹ of both⁴⁰ of us, that we have come to you to-day. Now I am destitute of all the friends by whose help⁴¹ I once defended the state. At the instigation⁴² of Caesar, and by his help, Metellus was reconciled⁴³ with Cicero.

¹ recuperare. ² occupare. ³ fundere. ⁴ tentare. ⁵ saevus. ⁶ persuasio. ⁷ (particip.). ⁸ accipere. ⁹ mittere. ¹⁰ forte quadam (by-accident). ¹¹ effundere. ¹² comitari. ¹³ impetus. ¹⁴ immotus. ¹⁵ rationem habere. ¹⁶ civitas (right of cit.). ¹⁷ collocare domicilium. ¹⁸ impere. ¹⁹ aperire. ²⁰ vallare. ²¹ ipse. ²² dux. ²³ fundere. ²⁴ deprimere. ²⁵ comes. ²⁶ dubitare. ²⁷ manubiae. ²⁸ nasci. ²⁹ uber. ³⁰ terra. ³¹ colere. ³² permittere. ³³ ulla res. ³⁴ ipse. ³⁵ fundere. ³⁶ pastus (plur.). ³⁷ cadere. ³⁸ insperans. ³⁹ optare. ⁴⁰ uterque. ⁴¹ adjutor. ⁴² impulsor. ⁴³ in gratiam redire.

POSITION OF WORDS.

468. Many words have a definite, and, among good prose writers, an almost uniform place in a sentence. The place of other words is more dependent on the idea, which is contained in the sentence. Both of these will now be treated. It is to be particularly noticed, that words, which are connected together by the sense, are not to be separated, otherwise the sentence is unintelligible and wholly unmeaning.

Some words stand only in the *first*, others only in the *second* or still more remote place, in the sentence; others again must stand *before* or *after* the word to which they belong.

469. (1) The conjunctions *sed*, *at*, *verum*, *sin*, *nam*, *namque* and *etenim*, stand first in a sentence. Of this no example is needed. Yet *nam*, designed to strengthen an interrogative, stands as an enclitic after that word; e. g. *Quisnam — numnam — numquisnam*.

470. (2) The conjunctions *vero*, *autem* and *enim*, stand

after one or two words of a sentence, seldom after more; they generally separate the substantive and adjective; e. g. *Negat enim*; *uterque enim*; *ipse enim Cicero*; *qui autem voluptatem*; *illud autem ipsum*; *tu autem considera*; *id est autem malum*; *quum vero illa*; *Spartae vero pueri*; *omne enim malum*. On the contrary, the strengthening *vero* (truly), in answer to a question, can stand *first*; e. g. *Vero ac libenter*.

When the sentence begins with a preposition, these words (also *etiam* and *igitur*) do not come between the preposition and the word governed by it, but stand in the *third* place; e. g. *In principiis autem, in quo vero, cum his enim, ame autem, ex hac enim parte, de nostris autem rebus*.

The monosyllabic enclitics *que*, *ve*, and the interrogative *ne* are appended to the words to which they belong; e. g. *Propter summam familiaritatem summumque amorem; quae audavit, viditve; videsne — ?*

When *que* connects a sentence containing a preposition, it is very seldom appended to the preposition, but to the word following it; e. g. *In foro que—in re que—ex Hispania que—ad nummos que—abs te que—a me que ipso—inter nos que—ab eode in que—ob eam que causam*, etc. So also *quam prium que, and as soon as possible*.

In a sentence, which unites the predicate with the subject by the verb *esse*, these particles (also *etiam* and *igitur*) stand sometimes *before* and sometimes *after* the verb. It will be observed:

(a) They stand *before* the declarative *esse*, when the sentence is *complete*, and the subject stands before the verb, and the predicate follows it, even if this predicate forms a sentence of its own with the infinitive or *ut*; e. g. *Cupiditates enim sunt insatiabiles. Id autem incognitum est minus. Id enim est maxime vitandum. Omnia enim sunt posita ante oculos. Haec enim plena sunt. Genus autem est id, quod sui similes—duas aut plures complectitur partes. Sanctitas autem est scientia colendorum deorum.*

This is especially the case in definitions, as in the last two examples.

General and indefinite sentences, whose subjects are either the interrogative *quis, quae, quid*, or the negative *nemo, nihil*, generally form an exception to this rule; e. g. *Quis est enim tam excors!* *Quid est enim praeclarus?* *Nihil est enim tam insigne.* *Nemo est enim tam senex* (Cic. *De Sen.* 7), not *Nemo enim est*—.

(b) But when such a sentence begins with the predicate, whether this be a substantive, adjective or participle, or indeed, when the subject stands first, but its predicate follows in a sentence of its own with *qui* or with *quin* containing this *qui*, or when the verb with or without *non* is emphatically placed first, these particles are properly always placed after the verb; e. g. *Ars est enim philosophia vitae.* *Alia est enim verborum definitio.* *Haec est enim vetus et Socratica ratio.* *Facilius est enim currentem incitare.* *Incredibile est enim.* *Suavis est autem et vehementer saepe utilis locus.* *Satis est enim.* *Necesse est enim.* *Longum est enim.* *Tanta est enim.* *Moriendum est enim omnibus.* *Verisimile est igitur.* *Quis est enim, cui non.—Quid est autem, quod deos veneremur?* *Temperantia est enim, quae monet.* *Ratio est enim, quae praestet omnibus.* —*Nemo est enim, quin putet.* *Nihil est enim, quod ad artem redigi possit.* *Sapientia est enim una, quae maestitiam pellat.* *Non est enim philosophia similis artium reliquarum.* *Non sunt enim alia sermonis.* *Sunt enim quaedam animi similitudines cum corpore.* *Est autem impudens luctus.*

When the first clause is complete, and therefore contains a subject and predicate, then, where the predicate stands first, the particle can occupy even the second place, when the verb is further removed; e. g. *Fundamentum autem justitiae est fides.* *Habenda autem ratio est.*

Yet this position, in very many passages, in the Latin writers, is questionable,—and some scholars consider the position of the particles after *esse* as the only right one, although *quis enim est, qui*—occurs frequently. Therefore, both positions seem to have been used together with little difference in the sense.

471. (3) The conjunctions *quoque* (also) and *quidem* (at

least, indeed), stand immediately after the words to which they refer; *etiam*, on the contrary, stands before the word to which it gives emphasis; e. g. *I doubt not that this is troublesome to you also, tibi quoque.* *A matter of great importance requires experience also (usum quoque) and practice.* *At least according to my opinion, mea quidem sententia.* *This is pleasing in appearance at least, species quidem.* *I add this also, etiam illud—.*

The conjunction *quidem* is often added to the pronouns *ille* or *is*, which are used after some other words that contain additional remarks, to make the nouns to which they refer, more prominent; e. g. Lycurgus *γέροντας* Lacedaemone appellavit *nimis i s quidem paucos duodetriginta.* Respecting *ille quidem*, comp. § 552. 5.

So *quidem* is often joined to *et*, *ut* and *certe*, where it generally strengthens the thought and signifies *truly, indeed*; e. g. *And truly all things of great excellence are rare, et quidem omnia praeclera rara;* *as indeed I think, ut quidem ego sentio;* *as indeed the cause now is, ut quidem nunc se causa habet.* The following is different; *As the cause is now at least, ut nunc quidem se causa habet.*

When *quidem* is connected with the name of a Roman, who is also designated by his given name, it usually stands after the given name: *Lucius quidem Philippus.* Also *etiam, enim, que* and the other postpositive particles, as well as the pronoun *ille* take the same place; e. g. *Publius etiam Popilius, Quintus enim Pompeius, Caiusque Tuditanus, Cneii autem Octavii eloquentia, Lucius vero Appuleius, Cn. ille Pompeius.* So also with given names subsequent to the time of the Romans, the particles are generally placed only after the first; e. g. *Hieronymus enim (quidem, autem—) Wolfius; Johannes enim (quidem—) Fredericus Gronovius.*

472. (4) Hence, the particles *ne quidem, not even,* cannot stand together, because *ne* stands before the word to

which it belongs, but *quidem* after it. Therefore, the word or words, and even the sentence, to which the negation in the *ne quidem* refers, stands between the two particles. So with *nec quidem*, *and not even*; e. g. *Your philosophers understand not even this*, *ne hoc quidem*: *he was not even then unhappy*, *ne tum quidem*; *I cannot even be angry at those, whom I love much*, *ego ne irasci possum quidem iis*—; *I have not heard even Xenocrates*, *ne Xenocratem quidem*; *the old man has not even anything to hope*, *ne quod speret quidem*; *and this not even wild beasts themselves do*, *nec feræ quidem ipsae*; *also not even in one*, *ne in uno quidem quoque*.

473. (5) The particle of wonder, *tandem*, *I ask*, *I pray*, *in all the world, then*, usually stands directly after relative words, when it belongs to them; hence, after *quis*, *qualis*, *quantus*, etc., seldom does any other word or words come between; e. g. *What I ask?* *quae tandem?* *Of what kind is this, I ask?* *quale tandem hoc est?* *How long, I pray, will you suffer?* *quousque tandem patiere?* *How much, I ask, do you value this?* *quanti tandem aestimatis?* But when the particle relates to another word, it is put after that; e. g. *What must we then do,—?* *quid nos tandem facere debemus?* Here it refers to *nos*. So, *quis me tandem jure reprehendat?*

474. (6) The particles *itaque*, *idcirco*, *igitur*, *ergo*, are, for the most part, so placed in the sentence, that *itaque* and *idcirco*, as they have a connective and demonstrative force, stand first, *igitur* generally takes the second or third place; —the place of *ergo*, on the contrary, is almost wholly arbitrary, sometimes before, sometimes after other emphatic words. The position of *igitur*, also, is somewhat arbitrary, but only in conclusions and questions, where it often stands first; e. g. *Therefore, this custom always pleases me*, *itaque mihi semper*—; *therefore, let us despise all folly*, *contemnamus igitur*; *therefore, this whole circumstance must not be regarded*,

totus igitur locus; therefore, that which is good, is honorable, bonum igitur quod est, honestum est, or igitur omne bonum honestum; consequently, no fool is happy, igitur nemo stultus beatus; therefore, the men must not be heard, non ergo erunt homines —; therefore, shall a veteran soldier be able to do these things, but a sage not, ergo haec veteranus miles? on this account I had begotten him, idcirco eum genueram. The particle *igitur* takes the third place, in such cases as are mentioned above, § 470, where *enim* and *autem* are spoken of. Hence, Duplex est igitur ratio veri reperiendi. Singularis est igitur quaedam natura. Quid est igitur, quod requiras? Qualis est igitur haec conspiratio virtutum. Adhibita est igitur ars quaedam. But in the short question, *Why is it therefore, to which nothing else belongs, the Latins say, Quid igitur est? Quid ergo est?*

475. (7) The particle *tamen*, *yet, nevertheless*, when it has a particular emphasis, and indeed generally in the conclusion of a conditional or concessive sentence, or in a question, takes the first place; yet it often also stands immediately after that word in a sentence, which is to be made emphatic; e. g. *Although glory has nothing in itself worthy of a wish, yet it follows virtue as a shadow, tamen virtutem sequitur; although this may be said, yet it is not said unadvisedly, non inscite tamen dicitur; yet they so dispute this, haec tamen ita disputant; yet, before Pericles, there was no writing, to which the embellishment of style had been given, tamen ante Periclem, littera nulla est. What! if I produce the testimony of the most virtuous men to his innocence, yet shall the unanimity of the Gauls have more weight? tamen ne plus valebit? he is exempted from the punishment of death, but yet is fined, multatur tamen pecunia.*

476. (8) The particle *non* always stands before the word to which it belongs.

When there is only one verb in the sentence to which it

belongs, it stands before this; e. g. *I doubt not*, non dubito; me non delectat; non dissolvit.

When there are two verbs, whether the verb *esse* with a participle, or an auxiliary verb and an infinitive connected with it, and when neither the participle nor infinitive is antithetic to another participle or infinitive, *non* is placed before the auxiliary verb; e. g. *These things were not overlooked*, praetermissa non sunt. *I have not been banished from the city*, pulsus ego civitate non sum. *This art is not to be censured*, non est reprehendenda. *There must be no delay*, non est cunctandum. *I dare not say this*, non audeo haec dicere. *The matter could not longer be concealed*, diutius tegi non potuit. *The accuser did not cease to recite these*, recitare non desivit. Exceptions to this are rare.

A change in the position of the negative with respect to the governing verb, may sometimes entirely alter the sense; e. g. *I am not able to read*, non possum legere, but *I am able not to read*, i. e. *I can leave off reading*, possum non legere. So, *Pompey had not determined to fight*, dimicare non constituerat, but *had determined not to fight*, non dimicare constituerat. For *non nemo*, *nemo non*, and the like, see § (541. c.).

When *non* is used to negative an adjective or adverb, it is usually placed before such a word; e. g. *It is not easy to find friends*, non facile est. *It is not probable*, non verisimile est. *I do not take this ill*, non moleste fero. *It is not necessary*, non necesse est, non opus est.

Yet where adjectives occur with the verb *esse*, *non* can also be placed before the verb, when the adjectives are not antithetic; e. g. Non est verisimile, non est necesse, non est notum. Liberi mei orbi non erunt. Hoc mihi notum non erat.

But when *non* is not designed to negative the adjective or adverb, then it does not stand before it; e. g. *You cannot live pleasantly there*, ibi jucunde vivere non potes,—not

non jucunde. *I cannot longer remain in this life, diutius esse non possum,—not non diutius.* *What is by chance, cannot be certain, non possunt esse certa,—not non certa.* In a few examples it is otherwise; e. g. *Quod in Matii familiaritatem venisti, non dici potest, quam valde gaudeam, for dici non potest.* (Cic. Fam. VII, 15).

When *non* or a word containing *non*, e. g. *nemo, nullus, nihil*, is connected with one of the pronouns or adverbs used in negative sentences, as *quisquam, ullus, usquam, unquam*, (see § 527), it always stands first; e. g. *Non memini me unquam te vidisse. Nihil unquam mihi negavit.*

When two substantives, adjectives, participles and the like, are contrasted with each other, and before one of them the word *not* is used, while before the other the word *but* is either used or implied, then *non* is placed before the former word; e. g. *In these words regard was had, not to brevity, but rather to beauty, non brevitati servitum est, sed magis venustati. It is not pleasure that is the opposite of pain, but it is the absence of pain, non voluptas contraria est, sed doloris privatio. He was not led from the court, but dragged, non ductus, sed raptus est. This ship was not taken by our fleet, but was found at Megaris, non capta est, sed inventa. We preserved him for prison, not for the city, carceri, non urbi. The image was not made by the hand of man, but it fell from heaven, non humana manu facta, sed —.*

477. The words *not so—as* are always translated, *non tam—quam; not more—than non plus, quam;* e. g. *Non tam facile est.*

Further, when *not so* stands before an adjective or adverb, it is always expressed by *non ita*; e. g. *Not so old, non ita antiquus. In this one point you do not so much praise Pompey, non ita valde probas.*

In negative asseverations, where we use double negatives,

first *no*, then *not*, the Latins use *non* but once, and place it first; e. g. *No truly, I have not suspected this, non mehercule, suspicatus sum. No! that is not the man, non is vir est.*

In conclusions, *non* usually comes before the words *igitur* and *ergo*; e. g. *Therefore friendship does not look at utility, non igitur utilitatem amicitia sequitur. Therefore those men are not to be heard, non ergo illi sunt audiendi.* But yet *igitur* and *ergo* very frequently stand in the third place: e. g. *Therefore trouble does not befall a wise man, non cadit ergo (igitur) in sapientem aegritudo.*

The words *non nisi*, in the sense of *only*, are always separated by the classical writers, so that *non* always stands before the verb, but *nisi* before the word to which *only* belongs; e. g. *This can happen only to a brave man, id accidere, nisi fortiviro, non potest. He was wont to do this before, only on feast days, hoc facere, nisi festis diebus, antea non solebat.*

When a negative principal sentence is connected with a sentence with *if, if not, unless (nisi)*, *non* usually stands first in its own sentence; e. g. *If this were not to be found in old men, our ancestors would not have called the highest council, a Senate, non summum concilium—appellassent Senatum.* If it stands before the conditional sentence with *if*, etc. it gains a special emphasis; e. g. *non si tibi ea res grata fuisset, esset etiam probata.* But this position is less frequent.

As an accusative with the infinitive is closely connected with the governing verb, where such accusative with the infinitive is negative, *non* almost always stands before the governing verb; e. g. *I think this is not possible, non arbitror hoc fieri posse. He thinks that this direction does not relate to him, ille non putat ad se praeceptum pertinere.* Hence also, *negare, to say, that not.* Comp. § 529.

Finally, in phrases, as, *Who is there* (there is no one), *to whom this is not clear, non* is placed almost at will, but gene-

rally after the relative; e. g. *Quis est (nemo est), cui non perspicua sint illa.* *What state is so strong, that it cannot be shaken by discord?* *qua e non — everti possit?* *There is nothing which length of time cannot attain,* *quod non — assequi possit.* *Whom has Pompey not preserved?* *que m non Pompeius servavit?* *I am not so unfeeling as not to be moved by the grief of my brother,* *qui fratri maerore non movear.* *There is no one to whom my safety was not dear,* *cui mea salus non cara fuerit.* Such questions contain affirmations, and therefore the verbs do not require the negative.

478. (9) In many connections, the particles *ita* and *sic* have generally a uniform position; e. g. *No, it is not so,* *non est ita,—more seldom non ita est, but never est non ita or ita non est.* *I think so precisely,* *ita prorsus sentio* (*censeo, existimo, etc.*), *seldom prorsus ita sentio.* *I understand it perfectly,* *ita prorsus intelligo.* But, *Yes, it is so precisely,* is written, *prorsus ita est or ita prorsus est,* not *prorsus est ita.* Further; when in the phrase, *The thing is so,* the word *so* refers to what precedes, then *sic* (*ita*) usually stands first; *Sic se res habet,* more seldom *res se sic habet;* but when, moreover, *that* (*ut*) follows, and *so* refers principally to what follows, it is written sometimes *res sic se habet, ut —,* sometimes *sic se res habet, ut —,* sometimes *sic (ita) res se habet, ut —,* and, when it relates to what follows without *ut,* *sic* usually stands at the end; e. g. *The thing was so done,* *acta res est sic or res acta sic est.*

479. (10) The pronoun *ille* (*that*), when it does not refer to a person or thing previously mentioned in the discourse, but only to the celebrity of a person or thing, stands in the sentence, for the most part, after its substantive, or after an adjective belonging to the substantive; e. g. *Dux ille Graeciae;* *triginta illi viri;* *vetus illud probatumque proverbiu;* *dominans ille in nobis Deus;* *imitor Archytam illum Tarentinum;* *Cyrus ille Perses;* *crudelissimus i e*

Phalaris ; Nonae illae Decembres ; crebro mihi vafer ille Siculus insusurrat cantilenam illam suam ; ut ait poeta ille noster ; L. Bruto illi, nobilitatis vestrae principi.

So *hic, iste, ipse*, if the substantive is antithetic, or, from its importance to the whole thought of the sentence, is to be made emphatic, stand *after* it; otherwise they, as well as *ille*, commonly stand *before* the substantive, or between an adjective and substantive; e. g. *Disputationem hanc de oratore, etc. malim tibi et Bruto placere, eloquentiam autem meam populo probari. Neque Aristotelem istum desidero. Caedem hanc ipsam contra remp. decrevit.*

480. (11) The pronoun *quisque* (each, every one), in all its cases and numbers, is placed after the word to which it belongs, in three circumstances; viz.

(a) After the reflexive pronouns *sui, sibi, se* and *suus*; e. g. *Sibi quisque carus est; ipse se quisque diligit; de se quisque bene sentit. Each one is chiefly influenced by his own desire, suo quisque studio. All advice must have reference to the peculiar nature of each one, ad suam eujusque naturam. The Stoics call everything by its own name, suo quaque rem nomine appellant. Every one ought to defend his friends, suos quisque debet tueri.*

The best Latin writers put the reflexive pronouns after *quisque*, only when *quisque* is placed in a subordinate sentence standing first, but yet belongs to the principal sentence, as its subject, or when the reflexive pronoun must, for the sake of emphasis, stand last in the sentence; e. g. *What every one knows to be his own, let him take (let every one take what he knows to be his own), quod quisque suum agnoverit, tollat. As much as every one esteems himself, so much will he be esteemed by his friends, quanti quisque se ipse facit, tantum fiat ab amicis. That suits each one best, which is peculiar to each, id maxime quemque decet, quod est eujusque maxime suum.* Comp. § 506.

481. (b) *Quisque* is placed after superlatives, when it belongs to these, and stands instead of *omnes*; e. g. *Every truly good man shows this by the very act, optimus quisque. This is most pleasant in every intimate friend, in amicissimo quoque. Among all the most noble, there is a strife*

for honor, in optimis quibusque. On the contrary, in the phrase, *ut quisque* (comp. § 95) with the superlative, it stands before the superlative.

482. (c) *Quisque* is placed after the *ordinal numbers*, in the sense of *every*; *every fifth year* (*every five years*) *Sicily is taxed, quinto quoque anno. Every tenth, decimus quisque.*

483. (12) When for the purpose of inspiring confidence in one's self, the English phrase *believe me* is used, *mihi* generally stands before *crede* and *credite*, in Cicero; e. g. *Believe me, whatever you have heard is false, mihi credere.* Cicero has placed it after the verb only occasionally; others do it oftener.

484. (13) Substantive pronouns are most commonly inserted between two closely connected words, and especially between an adjective pronoun and its substantive; e. g. *Res tuae quotidie faciliores mihi et meliores videntur. Officiis diligenter a me sancteque servatis. Hic me dolor angit, haec me cura sollicitat. Hac ego religione non repulsus. Quod ille periculum vitavit. Ut in illa quisque aetate esse poterat. Quo quidquid animo fiat. Quo quisque loco cecidit.*

Two pronouns in a sentence, referring to each other, are usually placed near one another; e. g. *You wish him to send something to me, tu eum vis aliquid ad me mittere. I have all these common with you, haec omnia mihi tecum sunt communia. I wish to be praised by you, me abs te cupio laudari.* So also pronouns of the same person are very frequently placed next to one another, e. g. *Tua et tibi occurrent injuriae. Hunc tu tua voluntate remove metum. Sua ipsi frumenta corrumpunt. Suis se laudibus consolari.*

The pronoun *ipse*, when it is in the same case with another pronoun, e. g. *me, mihi*, and has no special emphasis, follows that pronoun, therefore *me ipsum, mihi ipsi* and the like; yet

when it is emphatic and has the sense of *even*, it stands before; e. g. *of me myself, even of me, de ipso me; even to me, ad ipsum me; as much as I myself (even), quantum ipse ego.* But when it stands in the nominative, since it refers to the subject of the verb, it can stand before or after the other pronoun; e. g. *qui ipse sibi assentatur, et se maxime ipse delectat.* In the sense of *very, just*, it is always placed after the other pronoun to which it refers; e. g. *ille ipse, hic ipse.* Comp. § 126.

485. (14) When phrases, e. g. *as I believe, think — ut credo, arbitror, opinor, etc., also similar ones without ut: credo, censeo, opinor, stand by themselves, without another sentence being dependent on them, then those words are usually placed not before or after, but within the other sentence, and generally after the most important word;* e. g. *I believe Endymion is not yet awake, Endymion nondum, opinor, est experrectus. My feelings towards you were not changeable, as you write, in te non fui, ut scribis, animo mobili. I believe, Verres designedly left this word out of his testimony, Verres hoc verbum consulto, arbitror, ex testimonio suo omisit.*

486. (15) The adjective *omnis*, for the most part, stands after pronouns; e. g. *all these, all those, hi omnes, illi omnes, not omnes hi, omnes illi.* So also in Greek: *οὗτοι πάντες, ταῦτα πάντα.* Hence, e. g. *The Stoics define all these, haec omnia definient Stoici. I am moved by the tears of all these, horum omnium. But a few possessed the places of honor, the provinces and all other things, et alia omnia.* So also, omitto et haec et alia permulta.

487. (16) The position of *inquam* is to be noticed in two respects:

(a) It is never placed before the words of the speaker, but is inserted among them; e. g. *Plato says justly: No wise man punishes, because a fault has been committed, recte Plato: Nemo prudens, inquit, puniat.—Tum ille: nempe*

eum dicens, inquit, quo—. Istum ipsum, inquam, dico librum.

(b) When *inquam* has its subject joined with it in the discourse, the subject usually stands after the verb, as sometimes in English, *said I*, *said Plato*; e. g. *Said Cotta, it seems to me so truly, mihi vere, inquit Cotta, videtur. Julius said, What if I assent to Antony?* quid si, inquit Julius, assentior Antonio? So in all similar intermediate phrases, the subject is mostly placed after the verb; e. g. *Scribit Cicero, putat Plato, censuit Caesar.*

The subject of the formula, *ut ait*, has also the same position; e. g. *A diseased mind, as Ennius says, always errs*, *ut ait Ennius. Ut ait idem Terentius. As Socrates says in Xenophon*, *ut ait apud X. Socrates.* The subject stands before the verb, only when two subjects are contrasted with each other, or when *is* followed by *qui*, is the subject; e. g. *As he says, whom we follow*, *ut is ait quem sequimur.* So also with other similar verbs, *ut scribit Cicero, ut refert Livius, ut censem Zeno*, etc.

488. (17) The explanations of a proper name usually stand after it, because they contain nothing which has any effect on the sentence. Hence, *Cicero consul*; *Tib. Gracchus tribunus plebis*; *Laevinus Praetor*; *Thales Milesius*; *Dionysius tyrannus*; *Sardanapalus opulentissimus Syiae rex.*

The explanatory word stands before the name of a person, only when it is to distinguish one person from another; e. g. *When Mucius the augur was dead, I went to Pontifex Mucius*, *Mucio augure mortuo, me ad pontificem Mucium contuli.* Or when something emphatic is contained in it, as when Cicero says: *Scythes Anacharsis hoc potuit, nostrates philosophi facere non possunt?* or when he relates that, *Cinna commanded the head of his colleague, the consul Octavius, to be cut off*, *Cinna, collegae sui, consulis Cn. Octavii praecidi caput jussit*; or when the name itself stands emphatically at the end of a sentence; e. g. *The senate decreed an inquiry against the consul*, viz. *Caepio, decreta senatu consuli quaestio Caepioni.*

Yet many predicates stand first; e. g. *rex, urbs, oppidum, Atheniensis*, and the like, as it seems, without any special reason.

489. (18) The phrase *ut ita dicam, so to speak*, stands

either directly before or after the word, for the use of which an apology is to be made; e. g. *In our herd, so to speak, in nostro, ut ita dicam, gregē.* *The best and most beautiful furniture of life, so to speak, optima et pulcherrima vitae, ut ita dicam, supellecē.* *This is a low and by no means, so to speak, noble origin of friendship, et minime generosus, ut ita dicam, ortus.*

490. (19) *Certain phrases, proverbs and titles have the position of the words of which they are composed, almost always fixed.* These often stand differently in English; e. g. *By sea and land, terra marique, seldom et terra et mari, et mari et terra, mari terraque.* *With fire and sword, ferro ignique, ferro atque igni, ferro flammaque; but flamma et ferro.* *With might and main, with all speed, manibus pedibusque, velis remisque or ventis remis, equis viris or equis virisque.* *To forbid one the use of fire and water, alicui interdicere aqua et igni.* *In peace and in war, domi militiaeque, domi bellique.* *Neither in peace nor in war, nec domi nec militiae.* *Neither peace nor war, neque pax, neque bellum.* *Between hope and fear, inter spem metumque.* *Human and divine right, jus fasque.* Further: *Aedilis curulis; Tribunus plebis, Tribunus militum or militaris; Patres conscripti; campus Martius; populus Romanus; dii immortales; jus civile; res militaris; via Appia, and so similar forms.* Further; it is always said *sursum deorsum; huc, illuc; hic, ubi; ultro citroque, ultro et citro, ortus et occasus, diem noctenque, dies noctesque or noctes et dies; aequi et boni or aequi boni; Deus optimus maximus; aequius melius seldom melius aequius.*

491. (20) When a substantive belongs to two or more prepositions, which govern different cases, it does not stand after the last, but either after the first, or is repeated with each preposition, or instead of the substantive, a pronoun referring to it, is used with the second; e. g. *Both in and out*

of the body, et in corpore et extra, not et in et extra corpus. Inquire what happened before, what with, what after the event, quid ante rem, quid cum re, quid post rem evenerit. Much had been said for and against the Licinian law, pro lege Licinio contraque eam multa dicta erant. So, et in consulatu tuo et post consultum; contra legem proque lege; pro tabulis et contra tabulas; pro testibus et contra testes, etc. Yet ante can be connected with post by et, because both are also adverbs for *antea*, *postea*. Hence, ad Herenn. IV. 55, quae ante et post et in ipsa re facta erunt, is right.

On the contrary, when both prepositions govern the same case, they can be connected either by *et* or *que*, and their substantive be placed after the second preposition or as before; e. g. *The Gauls dwelt on the hither and farther sides of the Po*, citra et ultra Padum or citra Padum ultraque. So, intra extraque munitiones; ante signa circaque.

But two prepositions without a substantive are never connected with each other by *et*. Therefore, *pro et contra* (for and against) instead of *in utramque partem*, *in contrarias partes*, does not accord with Latin usage. Two prepositions also, which belong to different substantives, cannot be placed after each other; e. g. ad inter pugnam eum adjuvandum for ad eum inter p. adjuv. *Ante diem* in the calendar forms an exception to this, where *in* and *ex* can stand before *ante*.

492. (21) The prepositions *versus* and *tenus* never stand before their cases, but always after them; e. g. *Curio travelled from Asia towards Rome*, Romam versus. *Spain as far as the ocean is a witness*, oceāno tenuis.

The preposition *cum* is always placed after the ablatives, *me, te, se, nobis, vobis*—, can stand before and after *quo, qua, quibus*, but always stands before other pronouns and sub-

stantives. Hence *mecum, tecum, vobiscum, quocum, cum quo, cum illo, cum Deo*.

When an adjective or pronoun with a substantive belongs to one preposition, the Latins very often put the preposition between them; e. g. *hanc ob rem, hanc ob causam, alia in causa, multis in rebus, quo de genere mortis, quod propter studium, etc.* Yet *is* generally follows the preposition; e. g. *ob eam rem, de ea re.* But a preposition cannot stand between a substantive and an adjective following it; e. g. *causis de multis, for multis de causis; res ad rusticis, for ad res rusticas; castra in minora venit, for minora in castra.*

Cicero, especially in legal phrases, has frequently placed the preposition after the single *qui*, without a substantive: e. g. *qua de agitur, qua de judicatum est, quo de quaestio est, quos ad, quos propter, quem contra, quem penes, etc.* The poets and later writers put prepositions, especially those of two syllables, after substantives. This Cicero never does, and it is not to be imitated. We do not therefore say *spem praeter*, but *praeter spem*. It is also to be noticed, that Cicero never puts the preposition between the adjective *medius* and its noun, but before the adjective; e. g. *in medios hostes, not medios in hostes*; and in like manner with *is, ea, id*,—*eam ob rem, ea de re, eum ob causam, ea de causa* are as little used for *ob eam rem, ob eum causam*, except when by *is, ea, id*, the object is to be made emphatic, and the pronoun signifies *such a*.

A preposition may also be separated from its case. This is most frequently done by a genitive of attribute, or an adverb, which, with the word they limit or qualify, like adjectives, form as it were but a single idea. E. g. *I cannot think virtue sufficient for a happy life, ad beatitudinem vivendum; not for a contest of opinions, but —, non ad iudiciorum certamen.* Even an explanatory clause may be added to this genitive, and thus the preposition be removed still farther from its case; e. g. *officia pertinentia ad eorum rerum, quibus utuntur homines, facultatem.* More rarely by other limiting words, and here, too, only by such as form with the word which they limit, as it were but one idea. E. g. *In bella gerentibus. Cum in nominia dignis. Ad beneficis obstringendos homines. In suum cuique tribuendo.* A nescio *qua dignitate.* So, too, a conjunction, like the enclitics *que, ve, also autem, vero, tamen, quidem, enim* and other particles, is often inserted between the preposition and its case, yet these conjunctions often stand after the case governed by the preposition. E. g. *Ex que his. Deve dictatura, de ve colonialis. Post vero Sullae victoriam. Post enim Chrysippum. Propter vel gratiam vel dignitatem.* But *in* is not commonly thus separated from its case; thus, *in illo autem, etc., not in autem illo.*

493. (22) When sentences with *et—et*; *vel—vel*; *aut—aut*; *cum—cum*; *tum—tum*; *non modo—sed* (*verum*) *etiam—etc.*, have some common substantive, pronoun or adjective, then this is either placed before the first particle, or in some proper place in the second sentence; e. g. *Who is governed not only by the mind and will of the other, but also by his look and nod*, *qui ad alterius non modo sensum ac voluntatem*. *Both by better regulations and laws, melioribus et institutis et legibus*. *How great was either the admiration or complaint of the men!* *quanto hominum erat vel admiratio vel querela!* *He did not expose himself to the danger either of death or of slavery*, *non se aut mortis aut servitutis periculo commisit*. So also, *ab omni non modo fortuna, verum etiam spe*; *tali vel scientia vel natura*; *summam ingenii non laudem modo, sed etiam admirationem*; *sine ulla non modo religione, sed etiam dissimulatione*.

494. (23) In such phrases as, *I think that this must be done*, the pronoun when emphatic is placed first, therefore *hoc* or *id censeo esse faciendum*, not *censeo esse hoc fac*. *I took it very ill that I saw*, — *illud plane moleste tuli*, *quod*. *Yet I wish you to know this*, — *hoc tamen te scire volo*.

Examples for practice on §§ 468—494.

(1) To despise¹ riches is a mark² of a great mind, but³ to deprive⁴ another of something for his advantage, is contrary to nature. I do not believe this at least⁵. This also⁶ does not seem to me probable. Pythagoras did not wish to offer a victim⁷ even to the Delian Apollo. Dionysius said⁸ laughing: See, ye friends, how much⁹ the gods favor¹⁰ us! Every one offered something to Socrates, according to¹¹ his ability¹². Only a few entreat¹³ the all-powerful¹⁴ and good¹⁵ God to¹⁶ make them just and wise. Many praise that which is not to be praised. It is not proper to follow¹⁷ virtue for the sake of praise; but¹⁸, when praise follows¹⁹ after, then the desire to strive²⁰ for it, is doubled. The Grecians waged many wars with the Persians, by sea and by land. Xerxes desolated

Greece with fire and sword, and spared not even the temples of the gods. Here you have a gift, which, at least in my opinion, is great. It is certain, that almost every one cares more for himself than for others. Old men also⁶ still hope to live long. When the city is besieged, every one must⁹ be concerned²² for himself. God has given to every animal²³ its own peculiar nature. This letter was not sent²⁴ the day on which it was written. Great²⁵, indeed, is the genius of the boy, but yet fickle²⁶. I cannot be longer²⁷ in this life. It is not necessary to mention all. On that day, great slaughter was caused²⁸ on this side and on that. A place without a haven cannot be safe for ships. The orator considers²⁹ times and persons; for I believe, that we may* not always speak either with, or against, or for, or of every one, in the same manner. We can perhaps render³⁰ some³¹ assistance³² to our friends, each according¹¹ to his ability. What has occurred to my mind³³ for and against this, I will briefly explain. We are not accustomed to believe a liar³⁴, even when³⁵ he speaks the truth.

¹ contemnere. ² (see § 142.). ³ autem. ⁴ detrahēre. ⁵ quidem. ⁶ quoque. ⁷ hostia. ⁸ inquam. ⁹ quantopere. ¹⁰ favere. ¹¹ pro. ¹² facultates. ¹³ implorare. ¹⁴ maximus. ¹⁵ optimus. ¹⁶ ut. ¹⁷ sequi. ¹⁸ sed. ¹⁹ conséqui. ²⁰ appetere. ²¹ oportere. ²² timere. ²³ animans. ²⁴ dare. ²⁵ (for emphasis, *ille* is added after *magnus*, and *pueri ingenium* is put at the end). ²⁶ multiplex. ²⁷ diu. ²⁸ inferre. ²⁹ respicere. ^{*} licere. ³⁰ ferre. ³¹ aliquid. ³² ops. ³³ mens. ³⁴ mendax. ³⁵ (participle).

(2) All¹ the truly² wise and noble³ are exposed to the envy of wicked men. Every one hopes the best for himself. Stilpo was asked, whether he had lost anything. He said⁴: nothing; for I carry⁵ everything of mine with me. Many do not call even that proper, which they call good. We consider Europe the smallest portion of the earth, but yet it is the most cultivated⁶. It is not so, as most have hitherto⁷ believed and every one has hitherto dreamed. The Ætolians besieged Chalcis by sea and land. I do not ask you, but the poet himself. No consular man, not only not⁸ by his voice, but not even by his look, gave assent⁹ to Piso. Nature has desired that everything should be perfect in its kind¹⁰. Everything which he has related, has not happened. When a great quantity of gold and silver was carried in a procession¹¹, Socrates said: How many things I do not desire¹². Believe me, that I am nowhere more pleased¹³, than with you. You refer¹⁴ me to the philosophers, who do not often go¹⁵ to battle. Epi-

curus does not know what pleasure is, therefore¹⁶, let us pass him by¹⁷. He refers us to nature; but¹⁸ she not only permits this, but¹⁹ even demands²⁰ it. We are more diffuse²¹, than it is necessary; for who is there, to whom all this is not plain²²? Panaetius used unnecessary evidence in a case not doubtful. Distinguished²³ men are animated²⁴ by wisdom and virtue; for* in these is the highest good. A field cannot be fruitful²⁵ without cultivation²⁶. Nature is the mother of all these things. Publius Scipio Nasica was also²⁷ considered an eloquent man. So shameful²⁸ an act²⁹ cannot be believed; for³⁰ great is the influence of humanity. There were no examinations³¹ respecting these things³² before; for Lucius Piso first made a law respecting extortion³³. With what despatch this has been done³⁴, is not to be passed over³⁵ by me. Fire and water were forbidden³⁶ Cicero. Who³⁷, therefore³⁸, does not admit, that this is true? When³⁹ I think⁴⁰ of your travels, many things occur to me for and against.

¹ quisque. ² sapientissimus (truly wise). ³ optimus. ⁴ inquam. ⁵ portare — cum. ⁶ cultus. ⁷ adhuc. ⁸ non modo (not only not; the verb must stand in the second clause, see § 540). ⁹ assentire. ¹⁰ genus. ¹¹ pompa. ¹² desiderare. ¹³ libens. ¹⁴ revocare. ¹⁵ prodire. ¹⁶ igitur. ¹⁷ omittere. ¹⁸ vero. ¹⁹ verum. ²⁰ postulare. ²¹ longus. ²² perspicuus. ²³ praestans. ²⁴ excitare. ²⁵ etenim. ²⁶ fructuosus. ²⁷ cultura. ²⁸ etiam (is placed in the sentence). ²⁹ nefarius. ³⁰ res. ³¹ enim. ³² quaestio. ³³ res. ³⁴ res repetundae. ³⁵ gerere. ³⁶ praeterire (periph. conjugation). ³⁷ interdicere. ³⁸ quis est, qui. ³⁹ igitur. ⁴⁰ (participle).

(3) When you also¹ think² the same, I will continue as I have begun³. Antony said⁴: often have I heard this at least from⁵ Crassus. P. Mummius at least can testify this to me. Innumerable things might be named, but it is not necessary. Life does not seem to have been taken from L. Crassus, but death to have been given. It is deeply impressed⁶ on our minds⁷, that death is not a destruction, but a kind of journey. I do not speak* of a certain unusual⁸, but of the common⁹ prudence. Every truly wise man dies most calmly¹⁰. Every thirty days, Antiochus paid thirty talents to the Roman state. The sense of sight, as Plato says¹¹, is the most acute we have. There is no mortal who escapes pain, as Hypsipyle says in Euripides. When that Oilus¹² in Sophocles had heard of the death of his son, he became broken hearted¹³. At every third word, he called¹⁴ me by name. No one of all those is more dear to me, than you. All perceive, that that was not praise¹⁵ but insult¹⁶. Many do all this, thinking¹⁷ that it

must¹⁸ happen. I do not intend¹⁹ to mention²⁰ everything, which is wont to be said for and against these men. I do not know, whether²¹ bribery²² has been committed²³ or not. The custom of the Peripatetics pleases me, viz., to argue²⁴ upon all subjects for and against.

¹ quoque. ² existimare. ³ instituere. ⁴ inquam. ⁵ ex. ⁶ haerere (deeply impressed). ⁷ mens. ⁸ disputare. ⁹ excellens. ¹⁰ vulgaris. ¹¹ aequo animo. ¹² aio. ¹³ (subject stands before the conjunction). ¹⁴ frangere. ¹⁵ appellare (to call by name). ¹⁶ laudatio. ¹⁷ irriso. ¹⁸ opinari. ¹⁹ opotere. ²⁰ esse in animo (to intend). ²¹ referre. ²² ne. ²³ largitio. ²⁴ fieri. ²⁵ disserere.

Continuation of the preceding subject.

495. (1) The pronoun *qui*, *quae*, *quod*, when it refers to something preceding, or has attracted the substantive belonging to it into its own sentence, always stands first in the sentence. The Latins use this pronoun oftener than we do our relative; for they very frequently employ it for the demonstrative pronouns *hic*, *haec*, *hoc*. In a sentence with the conjunction *that*, where *qui*, *quae*, *quod* is used for *hic*, *haec*, *hoc*, the principal sentence must be inserted in the other. So, *ex quo* is used for *ex eo*, *from this*; *therefore* is expressed by *qua (de) re*, *quam ob causam (rem)*, *quapropter*, *quocirca*, *qua de causa*; *there*, by *ubi* for *ibi*; *thither*, by *quo* for *eo*; *from thence*, by *unde* for *inde*. All of these must begin the sentence. There is need of care in changing and placing these relative words.

Examples.

When I had said this, quae (quod) quum dixisse. If this is so, quod si ita est. Since this is so, quae quum ita sint. Although this excites no doubt, quod quamquam dubitationem non habet. One saying of Epicurus among these, I thought I understood, e quibus unum Epicuri dictum mihi videbar cognoscere. Since the violence of this contention is so great, cujus contentio quum tanta vis sit. When Numa had sat down there, ubi quum N. considerisset. When I was going thither, quo quum me conferrem. Because now it had been inscribed upon these, in quibus quod inscriptum erat. When the ensign could not at that time —, quod tempore quum signifer non posset —. Because Castor and Pollux in this battle —, quae in pugna quia Castor et Pollux —. When this had happened —, quod quum factum esset, or briefly, quo facto. Herodotus writes, that this had

been advised to Croesus, quod Croeso scribit Herodotus esse praeceptum. The event has shewn, that this was true, quam rem veram fuisse eventus declaravit. So in such sentences as, When you had come thither. When I could obtain this by a word. When I had read the life of this king.

Examples for practice.

Many of our institutions¹ are derived² from the Greeks; I omit these³, that we may not seem to have learned elsewhere⁴. Two passions remain⁵; if these³ shall not trouble⁶ the wise man, his mind will always be tranquil. There are many infirmities⁷ of the mind; all these³ arise from a certain fear of those things which we avoid and hate. Distempers⁸ of the body can exist⁹ without guilt, not so¹⁰ those of the mind; for¹¹ all the diseases of this³ arise from the neglect¹² of reason. Great is the number of brave Romans; the Greeks do not know¹³ all these³. It is very pleasing to me that these men have wished, that I should be in health¹⁴. When these³ men made known¹⁵ to me the unjust remarks¹⁶, I was very much grieved. Therefore¹⁷, I defended the cause of Crassus in the Senate, and¹⁸ you write, that you heard it. I wonder, that this³ topic¹⁹ has not been touched²⁰ by Posidonius. Do we not see the mode of life²¹ of the Lacedemonians²², in their Philitia? When Dionysius had supped²³ there he said²⁴, that he did not like²⁵ that black broth. When there had been great assemblies²⁶ in these cities, I determined to travel to Cilicia.

¹ institutum (comp. § 145. 6). ² ducere. ³ qui. ⁴ aliunde. ⁵ restare. ⁶ cadere in aliquem. ⁷ aegrotatio. ⁸ offendio. ⁹ accidere. ¹⁰ non item (after the genitive). ¹¹ (omitted). ¹² aspernatio. ¹³ noscere. ¹⁴ salvus. ¹⁵ perferre. ¹⁶ sermo. ¹⁷ quam obrem. ¹⁸ (omitted). ¹⁹ locus. ²⁰ tangere. ²¹ victus (mode of living). ²² (genitive). ²³ cenare. ²⁴ negare (which contains the following *not*). ²⁵ delectari. ²⁶ conventus.

496. (2) But when *qui, quae, quod* refers to something following, especially to *is, ea, id*, in the following clause, then other words which seem to be more important in the sentence, can stand first. The conjunctions mentioned above (§ 469), which do not refer to this relative introductory sentence, but to the principal sentence following, are here placed before the relative; e. g. *But what is plain, ought not to be long, sed quae perpicua sunt, longa esse non debent. What has been brought to Rome, may be seen near the temple*

of honor, Romam quae asportata sunt. Let him who devotes himself to the government of the state, beware, ad rem gerendam qui accedit. Those, who have these virtues, are called talented, eas virtutes qui habent. Instead of *eas* *virtutes*, *quaes* *virtutes* could have been used. Therefore, before such a *qui*, still another *qui*, used for *hic*, *haec*, *hoc*, can stand, because it refers to something preceding; e. g. *Nothing is more worthy of praise than virtue; whoever shall have obtained this, will be esteemed by all, quam qui adeptus erit, ab omnibus diligeretur.*

497. (3) When an introductory and a concluding sentence have a common subject, this subject almost always stands before the conjunction of the introductory sentence, because, as subject of the leading sentence, it is the principal word. Also all words which belong to the subject, must stand in the first part of the sentence. An exception occurs, when something else stands in the sentence, which refers to what precedes, and hence requires to be placed first; so also, when the subjects *I, thou, we, ye*, are not sufficiently emphatic to be placed first, as single words. But when the subject of the two sentences is not common, but yet designates the principal person spoken of, then also it is placed first. There is seldom an exception.

Some Examples.

When Darius, in his flight had drunk muddy water, he said —, Darius, quum — bibisset, dixit. After Dionysius the elder, had plundered the temple of Proserpine, he set sail for Syracuse; and when he was sailing with a favorable wind, he said, Dionysius major, quum — expilasset, Syracusas navigabat; is que, quum — navigaret, dixit. If commerce is small, it is unworthy of attention, mercatura si tenuis est, sordida —. If that elevation of mind, which is manifested in dangers, is without justice, it is faulty, ea animi glatio, quae cernitur in periculis, si justitia vacat,

in vitio est. But because I am now compelled to speak, may my voice be of service to them, ego autem quia nunc loqui cogor, vox mea iis serviat. As soon as Crassus heard this, being moved thereby, he arose, quod ubi audivit, commotus Crassus surrexit, or quod Crassus ubi audivit. When Aristides had heard this, he came to the assembly, quod Aristides quum audivisset.

498. (4) In like manner, the Latins usually place the subject of a principal sentence before the introductory sentence, even when this subject, in English, is in the introductory sentence, and they supply, in the latter, the place of this subject, by a demonstrative pronoun in an oblique case; e. g. *When it had been announced to Anaxagoras, he said*—, i. e. *Anaxagoras, when it had been ann. to him*—, *Anaxagoras, quum ei nuntiatum esset*—dixit. *When it had happened to the consul L. Paulus, he perceived*, *L. Paulus consul, quum ei contigisset*—animadvertisit. *When a certain one asked Sophocles, he aptly replied*, *bene Sophocles, quum ex eo quidam quereret, respondit.*

This construction occurs particularly with participles, when the subject of the principal clause is mentioned and must be sought in the participial sentence; e. g. *When Xenophon consulted Socrates, he said to him, Socrates Xenophonti consulenti dixit. After the enemy had learned this circumstance, they command Lutetia to be set on fire, hostes, hac re cognita, Lutetiam incendi jubent.*

Yet when *qui* is used, it is put in the case required by the sentence which stands first, beginning with a conjunction; e. g. *When it had been announced to him, he arose, cui quum nuntiatum esset, surrexit, not qui, quum ei nunt.* Comp. § 521.

499. (5) In like manner, the Latins usually place the common object of two sentences, the one an introductory, the other a concluding sentence, before the conjunction of the introductory sentence. This is especially the case, when the object is emphatic; e. g. *If circumstances will favor this change, we will make it the more easily, eam mutationem, si tempora juvabunt, facilius—faciemus.*

This rule is observed also, when the object belonging to the subordinate clause, is the most important in the discourse;

e. g. *But you wish to know, wherefore I have defended and praised Vatinius, Vatinium autem scire te velle ostendis, quibus rebus adductus defenderim et laudarim; Vatinius* is here the principal person of the subsequent discourse.

500. (6) Those words, which refer to what precedes, generally stand first in the sentence. It is for this reason, that demonstrative pronouns and the relative, when they relate to a preceding substantive, are always placed first. So also substantives, which refer to something before said, usually take the first place in the sentence, in preference to all others, even conjunctions and relatives ; e. g. *But when we say, that folly and injustice must be avoided, stultitia m autem et iniustitia m quum dicimus esse fugiendam. Since I embrace this opinion, hanc ego quum teneam sententiam. When it comes to this, ad ea quum accedit. Those who place this in virtue alone, id qui in una virtute ponunt. But as for what you say, that there is leisure, to this I assent, otium autem quod dicis esse, assentior. Since the violence of this contest is so great, we will use it, hujus (cujus) contentionis quum tanta vis sit, utemur. If this sighing brought any relief—, qui gemitus si levationis aliquid afferret—.*

501. (7) Interrogative words are often placed after the subjects and other words of the principal sentence, which, in respect to the idea, and the connection with what precedes, are more important. Even in indirect questions, the direct governing questions are placed after the indirect ; e. g. *But what shall I expect from the tribuneship of C. Gracchus ? de C. Gracchi autem tribunatu quid expectem ? They know not of what nature and how great is this strength of friendship, nesciunt, haec vis amicitiae qualis et quantas sit. What diseases, I ask, can be more afflictive in the body than these two, sorrow and desire ? quibus duobus morbis, aegritudine et cupiditate, qui tandem possunt in corpore esse graviores ? But who knows what will be the state of the republic ? tempora autem reipublicae qualia futura sint,*

qui s sci t? *This is the question, whether it is more probable, that he who was slain at Rome, was slain by him who —, hoc quaeritur, eum qui Romae sit occisus, utrum verisimilius sit ab eo esse occisum, qui —.* The position of the words here is particularly worthy of notice.

502. (8) All conjunctions, which form introductory sentences, e. g. *quum, si, quia, nisi*, etc., can, as many of the preceding examples have shown, stand after other words of the sentence. Therefore, they sometimes begin the sentence, and sometimes an emphatic word is placed before them; e. g. *Si indigetis pecuniae, pecuniam non habetis. Mors si est misera, miseriae finis esse nullus potest.*

But they must always stand after other words, when one of the conjunctions, which are uniformly placed first, e. g. *et, nam, etenim, sed, verum, at, itaque*, stands with them. Hence, so often, *nam quum, sed quoniam, etenim si, sed quia, itaque quum*, etc.

Examples for practice on §§ 496—502.

Whoever¹ censures the study of wisdom, considers² nothing worthy of praise³. If the wise man compares the life of the fool with his, he enjoys⁴ greater pleasure⁵. When cranes go⁶ to warmer regions⁷ and fly⁸ over the sea, they form⁹ the figure of a triangle. Whoever admires this, may confess, that he does not know what a good man is. When ambassadors had brought¹⁰ fifty talents to Xenocrates from Alexander, he refused¹¹ them. When Timotheus, that illustrious man of Athens and the first of the state, had supped¹² with Plato, he said: Your supper¹³ is pleasant, not only the present, but also the following day. If Sophocles had said this¹⁴ same, in a review¹⁵ of the combatants¹⁶, he would not¹⁷ have been blamed. If these philosophers wish to be consistent¹⁸, they cannot speak of duty. Do we not¹⁹ see the frugal mode of living²⁰ among the Lacedemonians²¹, in their Philitia? When a man²² of low origin said to C. Laelius, that he was unworthy of his ancestors, he replied²³: But²⁴ truly, you are worthy of yours. When Mettus asked²⁵ Tullus Hostilius, whether this proposal²⁶ pleased him, he answered: Yes. When Alexander had conquered²⁷ Darius, at Issus, he marched²⁸ to Phoenicia.

When two young men, who were sitting on white horses, told Vatienus on his journey* to Rome, that Perseus was conquered, he announced it to the senate. When I had made known²⁹ to the augur, Spurinna, your former³⁰ mode³¹ of life, he announced³² great danger to the state, unless³³ you returned³⁴ to your former habits³⁵. I wait to see what this course of Caesar through Apulia to Brundusium, effects³⁶.

¹(§ 500). ²putare. ³laudandus. ⁴afficere. ⁵voluptas. ⁶petere (participle, but not in the second subordinate clause). ⁷loca. ⁸transmittere. ⁹facere. ¹⁰afferre. ¹¹aspernari. ¹²cenare. ¹³cena. ¹⁴hic idem. ¹⁵probatio. ¹⁶athleta. ¹⁷reprehensione carere. ¹⁸consentaneum esse. ¹⁹(§ 501). ²⁰victus (mode of living). ²¹(genitive). ²²quidam malo genere natus. ²³inquam. ²⁴at hercule. ²⁵interrogare (participle). ²⁶consilium. ²⁷fundere (participle). ²⁸proficiisci. ²⁹(participle). ³⁰exponere. ³¹superior. ³²vita. ³³nuntiare. ³⁴nisi. ³⁵reverti. ³⁶consuetudo. ³⁷efficere.

End of the preceding subject.

503. The preceding paragraphs have shown, both what words have a *definite, unalterable* place in the sentence, and also, that many, from their reference to a preceding or following sentence, obtain a more prominent position. But the position of all words in a single or compound sentence, generally depends as little upon the option of the writer, as the position of those which have been mentioned.

504. The best Latin writers regarded three things in the position of their words, viz. *perspicuity*, *emphasis* and *euphony*. These fix the position, sometimes *before*, sometimes in the *middle*, sometimes at the *end*.

Perspicuity was the first law according to which words were placed, even when they were removed out of their natural logical connection. The *emphasis, tone or force*, by which many words were made prominent for the sake of contrast, must have given to them a more conspicuous place, than they had according to their common and natural position. But finally, *euphony* also had much influence in giving to words a position different from the common one. Even for the understanding itself, as well as for the ear, there is need, in a complete sentence, of a gradual rising and a corresponding falling of the words, so that the important words serve, some-

times for the *rising*, sometimes for the *falling*, and the others belonging to the sentence are placed in order, in the *middle*; for the most emphatic words never stand in the middle. Thus the euphonic construction often contributes to the emphasis, and yet both must be so arranged as not to injure the perspicuity of the sentence.

Hence, it is an almost uniform law, that words which are to be made *prominent* in a sentence, are either placed *first* or *last*, or, at least, do not retain their *common* position.

On this subject the following particulars are to be noticed.

505. (1) When a sentence contains nothing more than a subject and predicate, and neither is to be made emphatic, they retain their natural or logical position; e. g. *homines sunt mortales*. *Pater meus mortuus est*. A change would give a special emphasis to *mortales* or *mortuus est*.

An adjective stands, in its common position, *after* the substantive, when it is not emphatic; when it is emphatic, *before*; e. g. *Vita humana est fragilis*. *Liber tuus mihi placet*. In some connections, this is almost always the case; e. g. *Pontifex maximus*, *Tribunus militaris*, *campus Martius*, *populus Romanus*, *via Appia*, *mola salsa*, *Dii immortales*, *jus civile*, *res militaris*, *res familiaris*, *homines nobiles*, *patres conscripti*, *frater germanus*, *fratres gemini* and many others. Compare above § 490. In many cases, a particular meaning depends upon the position of the adjective; e. g. *bona dicta*, *witticisms*; *mala res* (in the phrase, *abi in malem rem*), *ill luck*. *Res* with an adjective always retains the first place, when, for want of a simple substantive, an abstract idea is to be denoted thereby; e. g. *res publica*, *res familiaris*, *res domestica*, *res navalis*, *res gesta*. Only for the sake of contrast is this position changed.

Indefinite pronouns, such as *quidam*, *aliquis*, *quispiam*, *ullus*, etc. are either placed, like adjectives after substantives, or inserted between the adjective and substantive;

but if the pronoun be emphatic, then, like the adjective, it stands before the substantive; e. g. *Membra quae d a m amputantur. Est gloria solida quae d a m res. Quae d a m Socratica medicina.*

Every case depending on a verb, when it contains nothing emphatic, stands *before* its verb; e. g. *Litteras tuas exspecto, tibi liberos meos commendo. Memoriam tuam admiror. Mortem malum judico.*

An adverb, which more nearly defines an adjective, verb or adverb, also stands *before* its word, unless it is to be made emphatic; e. g. *Ego te valde rogo. Is plane perspicit. Mors quotidie imminet.*

As to the arrangement of the limiting adjuncts of the verb, where there are *several* of them, no general rule can be laid down. It may be observed, however, that those limitations, which modify the idea of the verb itself, commonly stand next to it, the verb as it were blending with them into one idea. Here belong (1) *accusatives*, in constructions such as *facere fortem, dare assessorēm* (as an adviser), which, as attributes of the object of the verb, follow this object, and thus stand in immediate connection with the verb; e. g. *Lacedaemonii regibus suis augurem assessorēm dederunt. Necessitudo etiam timidos fortēs facit.* (2) The *genitive* or any other case, that supplies the place of such an *attribute*; e. g. *Caesar omnes honores sui beneficii fecit. Caesar Galliam omnem in obsequio habuit.* (3) The *dative* with *esse* and other verbs, in answer to the question *for what*; e. g. *Caesar T. Sextium legatum castris praesidio reliquerat. Tibi sanguis non modo voluptati, sed etiam quaestui fuit.* (4) The *genitive* or *ablative*, with such verbs as without these cases would express only an incomplete or indefinite idea; e. g. *Afficere* (poena, beneficio, morbo), *damnare* (capitis, capite), *absolvere, liberare* and the like. *Me ipsum ex tua erga Lucceium benignitate maxima voluptate affici.* (5) Designations of place in answer to the question *whither?* or supines with verbs of motion; e. g. *Ex epulis in cubiculum venit. Anci liberi Suessam Pometiam exsulatum ierant.* (6) For the rest, the *broader* limitation usually precedes the *narrower*, the *less necessary*, that which is *more necessary*, the personal object, that of the *thing*; e. g. *Valerius in templum ad tribunos venit. Brutus Ardeam in castra est profectus. Caesar in Galliam ad conventus agendos profectus est. Fulcinus uxori grande pondus argenti in matrique partem bonorum majorem legavit.*

506. (2) When, on the contrary, a word is emphatic in a sentence, especially by a *contrast* which is either contained in what precedes, or is expressed in the sentence itself, then

such a word always has a prominent place, either *first* in the sentence or at the *end*. So also, when a word is emphatic by some other special distinction, since then adjectives stand before the substantives; e. g. *Est* (there is really) *magna spes*. *Ars est enim philosophia vitae. Mathematicorum iste mos est, non est philosophorum. Stoicorum autem ignoras quam sit subtile disserendi genus. Quis libenter exercitationem ullam corporis suscipit laboriosam? Graeco verbo utamur, si quando minus occurrat Latinum. Necessitatis inventa antiquiora sunt, quam voluptatis. Romae regnum est ab condita urbe ad liberatam ducentos quadraginta quatuor annos. Hoc tibi non sine magna mercede continget. Eum genui mortalem. Rem opinor spectari oportere, non verba. Praeclara vero auspicia, si esurientibus pullis res geri poterit, saturis non geretur.* Therefore, without emphasis it is said; e. g. *bellum Punicum primum* (*secundum, tertium*); but the *second Punic war was the most bloody*, is expressed by, *Secundum bellum Punicum*. So also, always *bono, laeto, hilari animo esse*.

Therefore, the possessive pronouns *meus, tuus, suus, noster, vester*, stand before their substantives, when they signify *my own*, etc., and generally, when they have emphasis; but when they stand after their substantives, they only point out more definitely the person to whom the substantive belongs; indeed, they are for the most part wholly omitted, when the connection determines the person; e. g. *Neque praetores suis opibus, neque nos nostro studio quidquam proficimus. Nostra haec fuerunt officia. Flaminius id suo more neglexit. Hoc praestantius mihi fuerit, si in tua scripta pervenero, quam si in ceterorum.* Hence the Latin says only *mea, tua — — causa; mea, tua — — sponte; mea, tua, sua — — voluntate (goodwill); meo — — nomine, meis — verbis, in my name*. Seldom otherwise. It is only when a remark is placed at the close of the sentence, that they stand

either always at the end, or are separated from their substantive and placed first; e. g. *quas (sententias) exposui arbitratu meo*. *Tuo id quidem, inquam, arbitratu.*

Remarks.

Hence, the emphasis and prominence given by an otherwise unusual position, shows that Cicero (*ad Q. frat. I, I, 38*) says, *Appia via* for the usual *via Appia*, in order to contrast it with the *Asiatic way*; that (*Lael. 16*) he says, *quam multa, quae nostra (nostri) causa non facinus, facimus causa amicorum, not amicorum causa*, as the usual rule requires, in order to make, by the last place in the sentence, the genitive *amicorum*, more prominent, as being contrasted with *nostra (nostri)*; and that (*Off. I. 31. 113*) he says, *Id maxime quemque decet, quod est eujuste maxime suum*, since, according to the common rule (§ 480), it must have been written, *quod maxime suum cujusque est*. But by this position, *suum* would have been without emphasis. So he says also: *omnia, judices, haec amissa sunt*, for which he could also have said: *haec, judices, amissa sunt omnia*, but not *haec omnia, jud. amissa sunt*, with the same sense. Elsewhere: *sed plena sunt errorum omnia*.

507. (3) When an adjective belongs to two or more substantives, if it is emphatic, it is placed before, or after the first substantive; if it is not emphatic, after the last; but it never stands before the second; when emphatic, it is also repeated with each substantive; e. g. *The bulls contended with the greatest violence and ardor, summa vi impetuque. This instruction specifies certain principles and rules of speaking, rationes certas et precepta dicendi. Volusenus was a man of great sagacity and valor, et consilii magni et virtutis. Zeno was an inventor, not so much of new things as of new words, Zeno non tam rerum inventor fuit, quam verborum novorum. I have devoted all my exertions, labor, care and diligence to Milo's consulship, ego omnia mea studia, omnem operam, curam, industriam. Trusting to a consciousness of my duty and to my benevolence, fretus conscientia officii mei benevolentiaque. So, Utinam tibi operam meam studium que navare potuissem.*

508. (4) A genitive depending upon a substantive or an adjective, in its natural position, stands after the substantive. So always, *Tribunus plebis, Tribunus militum, ma-*

gister equitum, praefectus annonae, urbis, praetorio —, and all other offices. But when this genitive is more important, and the mind thinks first of the idea contained in it, the Latins generally place the genitive before the substantive; e. g. *Care of health, valetudinis curatio. Without fear of pain, sine doloris metu. The life of gluttons is to be censured, luxuriosorum vita est reprehendenda. The laws prefer the good of all to the good of individuals, leges omnium salutem singulorum saluti anteponunt.* Hence so often, *Animi magnitudo, terrae motus, juris scientia, juris consultus, juris peritus, pugnandi avidus, etc.* When two genitives depend upon a noun, one of the subject, the other of the object, the genitive of the subject (subjective) generally stands first; e. g. *Cognoscit hominis principium magistratum gerendorum.*

When a genitive contains something emphatic, it is often separated from the word which governs it, and is placed either at the beginning or at the end of the clause; e. g. *I dare not impose on you any burden, oneris tibi imponere non audeo quidquam. I see that you have had sufficient time to investigate these things, satis video tibi — ad ea cognoscenda — suisse temporis.* So, *Ut hoc saltem in maximis malis boni consequamur, where boni stands near malis, because it is contrasted with it, (see § 513). Initium quod huic cum matre fuerit simultatis, audistis.*

509. The Latins very frequently place such a genitive before the substantive, when this latter has an adjective agreeing with it, so that generally the adjective stands first, then the genitive, and the substantive last. The adjective is seldom last. This position is necessary, in most instances, for perspicuity; e. g. *The highest study of eloquence, summum eloquentiae studium. Further: Universa Agrigentinorum multitudo. Omnes vitae casus. In summa bonorum ac fortium civium copia. Haec pecuniarum effusio. Propter hoc injuriae genus. Rec-*

tam vitae sequuntur viam. Contemplare nocturnam coeli formam. Considera omnem membrorum et totius corporis figuram.

510. Hence, between the adjective and substantive, the Latins often place words depending upon the substantive, or sometimes, conversely, they place even the governing substantive between the genitive of a substantive and adjective; e. g. *Mea in te pietas. Merita erga me tua. Aliquod erga me singulare beneficium. Hoc mutuae inter nos caritatis pignus. Propter plurimos in omnibus fere carminibus locos. Ex illo coelesti Epicuri de natura volumine. Nostra in amicos benevolentia. Magnitudo tuorum erga me meritorum. Tu quoque eandem de mea voluntate erga te spem habes. Saepe miror nonnullorum insolentiam philosophorum.*

511. (5) The ablative, which often follows a comparative, and which is used for *quam* with a nominative or accusative, is placed before the comparative, when perspicuity and emphasis require it; e. g. *Ita mundus erit homine deterior. Nihil est in historia pura et illustri brevitate dulcior. Nihil est virtute amabilius. Negamus quidquam hac sententia esse absurdius. Illo homine neminem unquam vidi deformiorem.*

512. (6) When an infinitive, as a predicate, stands in contrast with a negative infinitive following, it is placed first in the sentence; e. g. *Decipere hoc quidem est, non judicare. Praecipitare istuc quidem est, non descendere.*

But when the negative sentence stands first, it begins with *hoc*, and the infinitives are placed nearer together; e. g. *Hoc est non dividere, sed frangere. Hoc est non considerare, sed —. So in a single question, with a negative sense; e. g. *Hoc est auxilium plebi ferre?* And so, finally, when there is merely an affirmative sentence without a negative: *Hoc quidem est amicitiam ad calculos revocare. Vim**

h o c quidem est afferre, where Cicero has only placed the most forcible word, *vim*, first.

513. (7) Words which are contrasted, whether they have the same or a different sense, generally stand together, in order to heighten the emphasis contained in them; or, when they stand in two sentences following each other, the Latins bring them as near as possible, so that one may stand at the end of the sentence, the other at the beginning of the next. In this way, a sameness of similar sentences is avoided.

Quaedam falsa veri speciem ferunt. Rebus in justis justi maxime dolent. Imponenda sunt nova novis rebus nomina. Multa multis de jure suo cedit. Quamobrem voluptas expetenda, fugiendus dolorest. Non omnia omnibus cupienda sunt. Concordia maxima, minima avaritia erat. Philosophia medetur animis, inanes sollicitudines detrahit, cupiditatibus liberat, pellit timores. Urbem incendiis, caede cives, Italiā bello liberavi. Quorum altera prosunt, nocent altera. Nobis miserum, invidiosum vobis est desertam rempublicam invadi. Patent hominum illustrium illustribus hospitibus domus. Artemisia quamdui vixit, vixit in luctu. Ea quum tempore commutantur, commutatur officium. Et excessus e vita, et in vita mansio. Catilinae erat satis loquentiae, sapientiae parum. Nemo parum diu vixit, qui virtutis perfectae perfecto functus est munere. And so many similar expressions. Finally,

514. (8) The Latins, not only in their orations, but also in their letters, and universally, wherever beauty and force of expression were aimed at, paid very great regard to a euphonic, energetic rise and corresponding fall of the words, and arranged the other words in a proper and harmonious succession, at the same time avoiding obscurity and indistinctness.

Some examples: Nunquam praestantibus in republica gubernanda viris laudata est in una sententia perpetua perman-sio. Cic. Fam. I, 10. Hoc velim tibi persuadeas, magnam te ex eo et perpetuam voluptatem esse capturum. Cic. Fam. III, 2. Quod tu si tanti facies, quanti ego semper judicavi faciendum esse, facies sapienter, et ages victor ex inimicorum dolore triumphum justissimum. Cic. Fam. III, 10. Decimus quidem Brutus, summus ille vir et imperator, Attii carminibus templorum ac monumentorum aditus exornavit suorum. Cic.

Arch. XI, 27. *Videmusne, nullum ab iis, qui in id certamen descendant, devitari dolorem ? Cic. Tusc. II, 26. Nulla in judiciis severitas, nulla religio, nulla denique jam existimantur esse judicia. Cic. Verr. I, 15, 43.*

The attentive reader will frequently meet with such passages in Cicero's writings, and he will particularly notice, that Cicero does not arbitrarily separate words from each other.

Examples for practice on §§ 503—514.

The Roman people, at a certain time, surpassed all nations in bravery. I beseech the immortal gods, that no misfortune may prevent you. The pure¹ are restrained² from lewdness by the fear of disgrace³. We see the faults of others, forget our own. Yes, this is indeed to wish⁴, not to teach. This is truly not to covet⁵, but to plunder. We ought to honor, protect and preserve⁶ the common union⁷ of⁸ the whole human race. Take care⁹ of my children, as thy good will towards¹⁰ me and my children deserves. Nothing is dearer to man, than wisdom. Of these ways, one is longer, the other shorter. If there are no gods, what in the nature of things¹¹ can be better than man ? I am the more indebted to you, the more noble¹² your generosity¹³ was to¹⁴ me, than mine to you. The dispute¹⁵ is wholly* respecting the dignity of virtue. No forgetfulness will efface my remembrance of your kindness towards me. When¹⁶ this is established¹⁷ in philosophy, then all is established. We agree¹⁸ in respect to the thing itself, in language we differ¹⁹. Among all the shameful crimes²⁰ of all, I have not²¹ seen nor²¹ heard of any more shameful. We magnify²² the future by fear, the present by sorrow²³. I indeed²⁴ would prefer wisdom, poor in words²⁵, rather than babbling²⁶ folly. The Greeks have²⁷ a rich²⁸ language, the Romans a poor²⁹ one. When Zeno had found any uncommon³⁰ thing, he gave³¹ this thing also³² an unheard of name. This is not to consider, but, as it were³³, to choose by lot³⁴, what you say. I believe, that we should** have regard³⁵ to things, not to words. One of the enemy cried out : Romans, that is to boast³⁶, not to wage war ! No one has lived too short³⁷ a time, who has performed³⁸ the perfect office³⁹ of perfect virtue. Excess⁴⁰ disturbs⁴¹ the whole⁴² condition⁴³ of the mind. Wickedness always prefers⁴⁴ the vil to the good. The multitude⁴⁵ of things begets⁴⁶ a multi-

tude of words. You have considered my friend as your friend. This we have said in our way⁴⁷, the Epicureans say it in theirs. New names must be given⁴⁸ to new things.

¹pudicus. ²arcere. ³infamia (comp. § 508). ⁴optare. ⁵concupiscere.
⁶servare. ⁷conciliatio. ⁸(§ 508). ⁹tueri. ¹⁰(§ 510). ¹¹(§ 508). ¹²celsus.
¹³humanitas. ¹⁴(§ 510). ¹⁵contentio. ¹⁶omnis. ¹⁶(participle). ¹⁷con-
 stituere. ¹⁸consentire. ¹⁹pugnare. ²⁰flagitium (shame. crime). ²¹nul-
 lus (not any). ²²augere. ²³maeror. ²⁴equidem. ²⁵indisertus. ²⁶loquax.
²⁷uti. ²⁸copious. ²⁹inops. ³⁰inusitatus. ³¹imponere. ³²quoque.
³³quasi. ³⁴sortiri. ³⁵oportere. ³⁶spectare. ³⁶ostentare. ³⁷parum diu.
³⁸fungi. ³⁹munus. ⁴⁰intemperantia. ⁴¹conturbare. ⁴²omnis. ⁴³status.
⁴⁴anteponere. ⁴⁵copia. ⁴⁶gignere. ⁴⁷mos. ⁴⁸ponere.

ARRANGEMENT OF SENTENCES.

515. When a principal thought is expanded by several subordinate ones, Cicero and the other classic Latin writers usually arrange these different sentences, which are mutually related to each other, in such a manner, that those, whose occurrence is *first* in point of time, or is conceived to be first, are placed before the others.

Therefore, sentences which denote a *cause*, *occasion*, *condition*, *hindrance*, *concession*, a *circumstance* which makes something necessary, a *preceding historical event*, etc., are usually placed *before* the others, or are *inserted within* them.

Hence, sentences with *as* (*ut*, *quamquam*), which contain a *comparison*, generally stand before the others. Here it is to be noticed, that the following sentence then begins with *sic* or *ita*, but these words are not added, when the order of the sentences is inverted.

Finally, all relative sentences with *qui*, *quicunque*, *quisquis*, *qualis*, *quantus*, *quot* and the like, generally stand before those with which they are connected, consequently before their demonstrative sentences; or, if this is not the case, they are, at least, placed as near these as possible; e. g. *Is it strange, if the human mind has not attained that, which divine power cannot attain?* *num hoc mirum est, quod vis divina assequi non possit, si id mens humana adepta non sit?* *If I reflect with myself on those calamities with which fortune has severe-*

*ly visited me, si eos casus, in quibus me fortuna vehe-
menter exercuit, mecum ipse considero.* Here, also, belong
all dependent interrogative sentences, which are often placed
before the governing sentence; e. g. *But who knows what the
condition of the state will be?* tempora autem reipublicae qualia
futura sint, quis scit? *You ask, against whom I say this,*
in quem hoc dicam, quaeris. *What shall I say, respect-
ing what number of slaves he has?* familiam quantam habeat,
quid ego dicam? Comp. § 501.

516. Where this transposition of sentences takes place, it
is often necessary to remove some substantive, which is *com-
mon* to two sentences, from one of them, and insert it in that
which is placed first, that this may not be ambiguous, and,
on the other hand, to put in its place a demonstrative pronoun.
And so also the conjunctions *igitur, autem, etc.*, which pro-
perly belong to the principal sentence, are placed in the pre-
ceding relative sentence; e. g. *I regret that you share in the
expense, which must be borne,* illud doleo, quae impensa
facienda est, in ejus partem te venire, instead of *illud doleo,*
te in partem impensae venire, quae facienda est. *With-
out doubt, those desires which rove too far, exceed their limit
and measure,* qui appetitus longius evagantur, iis sine du-
bio finem et modum transeunt, for iis appetitus finem et
m. transeunt, qui longius evagantur. *Why, therefore, shall
we not engage in those studies, which have no connection with the
business of the state?* quae igitur studia vacationem
habent publici munera, iis cur non utamur? The following
passage is worthy of notice: *You have determined, that you
must acquire those qualifications, by which those noble deeds,
the glory of which you have eagerly desired, are accomplished;*
thus in Cicero (Fam. II, 4): *Tu hoc statuisti, quarum lau-
dum gloriam adamaris, quibus artibus eae laudes com-
parantur, in iis esse elaborandum.*

517. In those sentences which contain a concession and
begin with *although*, where the subordinate sentence takes
the *first* place, the principal the *second*, the word *tamen* is ge-

nerally inserted at or near the beginning of the principal sentence ; e. g. *The name of this business, we acknowledge is new, although we see that it is itself very old,* quam rem antiquissimam quum videamus, nomen tamen confitemur esse recens.

Some further examples for this section.

518. *The science of living is derived from law, since this ought to correct the vices and commend the virtues,* Quoniam vitiorum emendatricem legem oportet, commendatricemque virtutum, ab ea vivendi doctrina ducitur. *As we ought to use that language in which we were born, so we should show no disagreement in our actions and in our whole life,* Ut sermone eo debemus uti, qui natus est nobis, sic in actiones omnemque vitam nullam discrepantiam conferre debemus. *They ran to arms with a loud cry, as soon as these things had been rehearsed,* Haec quum recitata essent, cum magno clamore ad arma discursum est. *Wherever you look, your evil deeds, like furies, meet your eyes,* Quocumque adspicis, ut furiae, sic tuae tibi occurrent injuriae. *I pass over what I had foreseen besides,* Quae praeterea providerim, praetereo. *I wish to learn, how you do, and what is taking place,* Quid agas, quidque agatur, certior fieri volo. *If any one is very elevated in his views, he conceals, from shame, his desire for pleasure, however much he may be captivated with it,* si quis est erectior, quamvis voluptate capiatur, occultat et dissimulat appetitum voluptatis, propter verecundiam. *He predicted what we all then feared would happen,* ille praedixit ea, quae omnes eo tempore ne acciderent, timebamus. *And now I have, as I think, satisfactorily shown, how morality, upon which duty depends, is derived from those things which rest in the justice of human society,* Atque ab iis rebus, quae sunt in jure societatis humanae, quemadmodum ducatur honestum, ex quo aptum est officium, satis fere diximus.

These and similar passages show, with how much art, the Latins often arrange their sentences and interweave them with each other. But they do not always do this. Very often their sentences stand just as the English is usually arranged.

Examples on §§ 515—517.

We must contend against old age, as¹ against a disease. We serve² him especially³, from whom we hope the most, although⁴ he⁵ needs it the least. All pleasure is referred⁶ to the mind, although it is judged of by the bodily⁷ sense. We now surrender ourselves to you heartily⁸ and wholly, as before in a great measure⁹. He can in no way live with a tranquil¹⁰ mind, who fears what cannot be avoided¹¹; but he obtains¹² a great security¹³ for a happy life, who does not fear death, not only because we must* die, but also because death has nothing

that is to be feared¹⁴. What pain ought not willingly¹⁵ to be endured¹⁶, in order to¹⁷ escape¹⁸ these faults. Verres sought¹⁹ everything which he sought, not to¹⁷ preserve²⁰ it but to carry²¹ it away. That, I will now²² pass over, because it will seem unimportant²³. I would not venture to speak in this place, if impudence had as much influence²⁴ in the forum and the courts, as²⁵ boldness has²⁶ in the field²⁷ and in retired places. Most urgently²⁸ I ask you to¹⁷ do this for the sake of my honor. It is folly not to be willing to receive gifts from those, whom we ask²⁹ for them, when³⁰ they present³¹ and give them. I have read, with great pleasure, the book which you recently sent to me. I will most zealously³² continue³³ the defence of thy merits³⁴, which I undertook in thy absence³⁵.

¹tanquam. ²inservire. ³potissimum. ⁴etiamsi. ⁵ille. ⁶referri. ⁷corpus. ⁸penitus. ⁹magna ex parte. ¹⁰quiētus. ¹¹vitare. ¹²comparare. ¹³praesidium. ¹⁴necesse esse. ¹⁵horrendus. ¹⁶ultra. ¹⁷ut (in order to). ¹⁸effugere. ¹⁹requirere. ²⁰servare. ²¹asportare. ²²jam. ²³levis. ²⁴valere (to have — influence). ²⁵quantum. ²⁶posse. ²⁷ager. ²⁸etiam atque etiam. ²⁹precari ab aliquo aliquid. ³⁰(participle). ³¹porrigere. ³²studiose. ³³permanere in aliqua re. ³⁴dignitas (singular). ³⁵absens.

CONNECTION OF SENTENCES, ESPECIALLY BY MEANS OF THE PRONOUN QUI, QUAE, QUOD.

519. Cicero but seldom, and then only in spirited narration, uses disconnected sentences; most of them are connected with others. Besides the frequent use of *nec* in negative sentences, (for which see § 528), he employs the pronoun *qui*, *quae*, *quod*, referring to preceding substantives, to connect his sentences. But since we use the pronoun *who*, *which*, only in explanatory sentences and such as define an object more exactly, we cannot often, in our language, connect sentences by *who* and *which*, as the Latin does by *qui*, *quae*, *quod*, but we must be satisfied with our personal and demonstrative pronouns. The following particulars are to be noticed respecting the use of *qui*, *quae*, *quod*:

520. (1) *Qui*, *quae*, *quod* often supplies the place of our pronouns *this*, *he*, *I*, and *thou*, when they refer to persons or things before mentioned. Since this *qui* continues what precedes, according to § 495, it must stand *first* in the sentence;

e. g. *There are very many disgraceful acts (turpidines); why they do not belong to the wise, it is very easy to show, quae cur non cadant in sapientem. The state cannot be properly managed by me. In how great danger it is, I will describe as briefly as possible, Quae quanto sit in periculo.* Hence, from this, is so often expressed by *ex quo; thither, by quo; wherfore, by quam ob rem, quae causa, etc.* Compare § 495.

We generally connect single sentences which refer to each other, by the conjunctions *and, for, but, therefore, hence* and the like, but in Latin, where the pronoun *qui* is used instead of *hic, is, etc.*, these conjunctions must be omitted; e. g. *Uniformity in one's whole life, is most honorable; but (and) you cannot preserve this, if —, quam conservare non possis, si — not quam que or quam autem..* And so always in phrases, as: *And this is the source of many evils, qui fons est multorum malorum. On the following day, and that was (or which was) the fifth of September, he came to me, qui fuit dies Nonar. Septembrium, ad me venit, for which the Latins also say, id est (erat) Nonis Sept., or is dies erat — ; the day before Easter, and that is to-day, qui dies hodie est.* Comp. Cic. Phil. XIV, 5, 14. That the conjunctions, as *ut, quem, quod*, are contained in the pronoun, and that the verb must therefore be in the subjunctive, has been sufficiently shown above, §§ 308—314.

Where *qui, quae, quod*, stands in a sentence introduced by a conjunction, we generally use a demonstrative or personal pronoun; e. g. *He ought to be instructed in these arts; for if he has made these his own in his earlier years, he will be more fit for something greater, quas si, dum est tener, cibiberit. I have done everything for the sake of my fellow-citizens, and if Pompey had not been envious of me —, cui nisi invidisset Pompeius.* Compare § 521.

It has already been remarked, that with such a *qui*, which refers to a preceding substantive, *et (que), autem, vero, enim,*

nam, igitur, are not joined, since they are contained in *qui*. On the contrary, when *qui* refers to a substantive standing in the same clause with itself, or to a demonstrative *is* placed after it, then *but, for, therefore*, are expressed in Latin by the appropriate words ; e. g. *But I will specify in what way we can obtain this, quibus autem rationibus hoc aequi possumus, dicemus. But he who wishes to obtain true glory, must be kind, qui autem adipisci veram gloriam volet*, i. e. On the contrary, *tamen* (yet) can be joined with *qui*, even when *qui* refers to a preceding substantive.

In order to make the use of this pronoun still more clear, some additional examples will be added. Examples ; *Rulers must take care, that there be a sufficient supply of provisions. How the procuring these is usually effected, it is not necessary to show, Qua r um qualis comparatio fieri soleat, non est necesse disputare. Nothing holds a state more firmly together than truth and confidence (fides), and this cannot exist, if —, quae esse nulla potest, si —. These things were attempted with arms, by people of every class, but I withstood them, quibus ita restiti. Antipater thinks Paenatius has passed over two points. But I think that these two points were passed over, because —, quas res a summo philosopho praeteritas arbitror, quod —. To this kind of comparison belongs that of Cato the elder. When he was asked, what —, Ex quo genere comparationis illud est Catonis senis. A quo quum quaereretur, quid —. We cannot forget Epicurus; for we have not only his image —, cuius imaginem non modo habemus.*

521. (2) The pronoun *qui* and the similar *qualis, quantus*, often form an explanatory sentence, which we also must begin with *who, which, how, such*; but the translation is difficult, because either a new relative word or a conjunction follows *qui, qualis*, etc., which, in English, is not admissible. Hence, where these words occur together, some change must frequently be made in translating into English ; e. g. *Epicu-*

rus non satis politus erat iis artibus, quas qui tenent, eruditi appellantur, *the possessors of which are called learned.* Quam te decebat his verbis uti, quibus si philosophi non uterentur, philosophia nunquam ipsa egeremus, *without the use of which as employed by philosophers, we never —.* In these two sentences, we might also translate the relative clause literally, *which they who possess, which if philosophers did not use,* but in the first not with equal elegance. Errare malo cum Platone, quem tu quanti facias, scio, *whom you, as I know, esteem very highly,* or, *respecting whom I know, how highly you esteem him.* Quid dico te a Velia amari? quem quis non amat? *whom every one loves* (without a question). Tantum vales apud Dolabellam, quantum si ego apud sororis filium valerem, jam salvi esse possemus—*where we must say, so that if I had as much influence, we now could.* Ille tribunus plebis fuit talis, quales si omnes semper fuissent, nunquam seditiones ortae essent—, *was of such a character, that if all had always been such, never —.* Hoccine regnum appellabitur, cuius vicarius qui velit esse, invenire nemo potest? *when no one can be found, who is willing to be its representative?*

In like manner, relative words are merely connected in case with the sentence which follows, whether it be introduced by a relative, or a conjunction. The same takes place, when the relative word belongs equally to the following subordinate, and the following principal sentence. In this instance, the English connects the relative in case with the principal sentence. Hence, for *qui* (or any other case) *quum ejus*, the Latin says, *cujus quum*; for *qui*, *quum ci—eui quum*; for *qui*, *quum eum — quem quum*; for *qui*, *quum ab eo — a quo quum.* And so in all similar cases. Then, in the principal sentence, *ille* or *is* referring to the relative word, often follows in the necessary case.

Examples: *Cornelia had two children, respecting whom she rejoiced, when she saw them successful,* liberos, quos quum florentes videbat, (iis) laetabatur, for de quibus, quum eos fl. vid., laetab. You

mourn for his death, who must at least have died in a few years, if he had not died now, qui si hoc tempore non diem suum obisset, paucis post annis tamen ei moriendum fuit, for cui, si is — obisset, moriendum fuit. That Prometheus, who, when it had been said to him, replied, cui quum dictum esset, respondit. On account of the expectation of the ambassadors, from whom there had as yet been no news of what they had done, qui quid egissent, nihil dum nuntiatum erat. And so this form of speech is employed in similar cases. It is said, e. g. I mention Alexander the Great, who, if he had lived longer, would have subjugated the whole world, qui si diutius vixisset, or cuius vita si longior fuisset, or cui si vita longior fuisset, or que me si diutius vivere licuisset, totum terrarum orbem subegisset.

522. (3) Since in *qui* the particle *nam* is included, a phrase containing *qui* and a substantive with the verb *esse*, may be explained by it. When we say, *According to thy love for me*, which the Latins usually translate by *pro tuo in me amore*, they can also represent the thought in this form: *For such is thy love to me, or for thou hast such love to me.* Hence the phrase, *Qui* (for *nam* is) *tuus est in me amor*, or (with the ablative of quality) *quo tu es in me amore*. *According to the mildness and gentleness of my disposition or for so mild and gentle is my disposition*, *quae mollitia est mei animi et lenitas*, or *qua mollitia sum animi et lenitate*.

When something already past is spoken of, the perfect tense is used; e. g. *Caesar pardoned most according to his kind disposition*, *quae ejus lenis fuit natura*, or *qua leni fuit natura*.

523. (4) *Qui, quae, quod* occurs very frequently in the ablative before a comparative; e. g. *Quo nihil potest esse stultius*, which we translate, *Than which nothing can be more foolish, nothing can be more foolish than this, or which is most foolish.* In such a phrase there is always a negative word, or the interrogative *quis, quae, quid*, which contains the force of a negative. When the English substantive to which *qui, quae, quod* belongs, stands alone and unconnected with any sentence, *qui* takes this in its own sentence; e. g. *A madness, which is the greatest, or there is no greater madness than this, quo furor nullus major est, or nihil majus est, or quo nullus furor major est.* *Nihil and quid* can be

used even with persons; e. g. *Than whom what can be or who can be more sluggish?* i. e. *who is of all the most sluggish, than whom nothing can be more sluggish, quo quid potest esse ignavus? quo nihil potest.*

Further examples: *You despise solitude, which is most dear to me, solitudinem, quia nihil mihi amicus.* These are boys, who are most happy, quibus nihil (quid) potest esse felicius. *This is an expedient, which is the most foolish that can be thought of, quo nihil (nullum) potest cogitari stultius.* *Cato, who at that time was the oldest and wisest, Cato, quo erat nemo senior temporibus illis, nemo prudentior. A work which is indeed most splendid, or what can be more splendid than this work? quo quidem opere quid potest esse praecarius? I see, and this is the most painful, that —, video, quo nihil est acerbius —.*

Remark.

A parenthesis, if it is intended to explain a *single word*, is usually placed *after* it, but if it serves to illustrate a *whole thought*, it is commonly placed *before* it. So also a sentence with *id quod* (§ 539) is either placed before, or inserted in that sentence to which it refers, seldom placed after; e. g. *Gazing upon the villa of Curius (for it is not a great distance from me), I can not sufficiently admire —, C. villam contemplans (abest enim non longe a me), admirari satis non possum.* The parenthetic clause explains why he could *view* the country-seat, and therefore follows *contemplans*. *If our country is our delight, which it most certainly ought to be, or if, as it most certainly ought to be, etc., Si nos, id quod maxime debet, nostra patria delectat. What alone was for the present most earnestly desired, after the consular election, he returned to winter quarters, Id quod unum maxime in praesentia desiderabatur — in hiberna rediit.* After a long parenthesis, Cicero usually repeats, in other words, the beginning of the sentence interrupted and resumes by *igitur, autem, ergo, sed tamen, inquam, or sed ut redeamus.*

Examples on §§ 519—523.

(1) The praise of the good is the echo¹ of virtue, and because² it is generally the attendant of good³ actions, it ought not to be despised⁴ by good men. Wisdom is the knowledge⁵ of divine and human things. He who censures the study of it, would consider⁶ nothing worthy⁷ of praise. We must⁸ now speak of beneficence and liberality, which indeed are best adapted⁹ to human nature. When young men wish¹⁰ to give¹¹ themselves to pleasure¹², let them beware of excess; and this will be the easier, if they, at least in such¹³ things, would permit older men¹⁴ to be present¹⁵. Young men are

most easily and favorably¹⁶ known¹⁷, who have attached¹⁸ themselves to wise men; for when they frequently¹⁹ associate with these, they raise²⁰ the expectation, that they will be like them. Great is the admiration of a man, who²¹ speaks fluently²² and wisely; for those who hear him, believe that he is wiser²³ than the others. Even in animals²⁴, the power of nature can be perceived²⁵; for when we observe²⁶ their cares, and the labor of bringing²⁷ them up, we seem to hear the voice of nature herself. A philosopher must do this the more; for an art is the philosophy of life, and whoever²⁸ discourses²⁹ upon it, must not employ³⁰ common³¹ words. Now Torquatus, most noble³² man, floats³³ before my eyes, and how great was his zeal for me at those times, you both must³⁴ know. Great is the power of conscience; for those who will disregard³⁵ it, will often discover themselves. Never can philosophy be sufficiently praised; since he who is governed³⁶ by it, can pass every period of life without³⁷ trouble. Beneficence* is often destroyed by beneficence; for the larger the number towards whom one has practised³⁸ it, the less able is he afterwards to practise it towards many. Nothing is more worthy of love than virtue, and he who shall have obtained³⁹ it, will be esteemed⁴⁰ by us, wherever⁴¹ he may be. I will mention⁴² two young⁴³ men, who, if their lives had been longer, would have acquired⁴⁴ great renown in eloquence⁴⁵.

¹ resonare alicui. ² quia. ³ recte factum. ⁴ repudiare. ⁵ scientia. ⁶ putare. ⁷ laudandus. ⁸ (participle in *dus*). ⁹ accommodatus. ¹⁰ velle (see § 234). ¹¹ dare. ¹² jucunditas. ¹³ ejusmodi. ¹⁴ (omitted). ¹⁵ interesse. ¹⁶ in optimam partem. ¹⁷ cognoscere. ¹⁸ se conserre ad. ¹⁹ frequens esse cum aliquo. ²⁰ afferre opinionem. ²¹ (participle). ²² copiose. ²³ sapere plus. ²⁴ bestia. ²⁵ perspicere. ²⁶ cernere. ²⁷ educere. ²⁸ (participle). ²⁹ disserere. ³⁰ arripere. ³¹ de foro. ³² bonus. ³³ versari. ³⁴ necesse esse. ³⁵ negligere. ³⁶ parere. ³⁷ sine molestia. ^{*} benignitas. ³⁸ uti (second person, see § (270. g.). ³⁹ adipisci. ⁴⁰ diligere. ⁴¹ ubicumque gentium. ⁴² mentionem facere. ⁴³ adolescens. ⁴⁴ consequi. ⁴⁵ (genitive).

(2) You will cheerfully take care¹ of our business, with your usual courtesy². If you had permitted³ me, I should have accomplished⁴ the whole thing, such is my love for you. You will obtain⁵ everything which you wish from Caesar, since he is so generous⁶. Ulysses, in accordance with his habitual cunning⁷, endured the insults⁸ of slaves and servants. By such doctrines, these philosophers remove⁹ friendship from life, which is the best and most pleasing* gift¹⁰, that we have from the gods. When¹¹ the cluster has ripened¹², it becomes sweet¹³; and what can be more beautiful to the eye¹⁴ than

this? Solon said, he grew old and¹⁵ learned¹⁶ much from¹⁷ day to day,—a pleasure of the mind than which none certainly can be greater. Not only planting¹⁸, but also grafting¹⁹, which, of all agriculture has discovered, is the most ingenuous²⁰, affords pleasure. O glorious²¹ day, in which²² I shall return to a friend, who²³ is the best and most remarkable²⁴ for his affection²⁵, that has been born. What are these²⁶ fortunes²⁷, the possessor²⁸ of which may be most unhappy? We see this opinion confirmed in that most sacred²⁹ Hercules; for after³⁰ his body was burnt³¹, immortality is said to have followed³² his life and virtue. Often important³³ events occur, so that one must leave³⁴ his friends; but he, who wishes to prevent them, because** he cannot endure his ardent³⁵ longing [for friends], is not³⁶ only weak³⁷ and effeminate³⁸ by nature, but³⁶ also far from³⁹ true friendship. By nature, we zealously strive⁴⁰ for that⁴¹ which brings honor; hence, when we perceive⁴², as it were, a glimmer⁴³ of it, we are ready to endure everything to obtain⁴⁴ it. When I was at my country-seat, I received your letter, and after⁴⁵ I had read it, I saw⁴⁶, that you had arrived safe⁴⁷. Demosthenes was the greatest orator of antiquity, and I know⁴⁸ no one, whom I could prefer to him. That Torquatus was the one, who, if life had been continued⁴⁹ to him, would have been made consul. Do we not wonder at Theodorus, a by no means⁵⁰ obscure⁵¹ philosopher, who, when king Lysimachus threatened⁵² him with the cross, said⁵³, With such⁵⁴ frightful things, threaten thy courtiers⁵⁵!

¹ curare. ² comitas (§ 522). ³ permittēre. ⁴ conficēre. ⁵ impetrare.
⁶ humanitas. ⁷ calliditas ⁸ contumelia. ⁹ tollēre. ¹⁰ jucundus (§ 523).
¹¹ (omitted). ¹² (participle). ¹³ maturare. ¹⁴ dulcescēre. ¹⁵ adspectus
 (§ 523). ¹⁶ addiscēre. ¹⁷ in dies (from — to day). ¹⁸ consi-
 tio. ¹⁹ insitio. ²⁰ sollers (§ 523). ²¹ praeclarus. ²² quum. ²³ (*nemo* is
 repeated with each adjective). ²⁴ praestans. ²⁵ pietas. ²⁶ iste. ²⁷ bona.
²⁸ qui habet. ²⁹ sanctissimus. ³⁰ (participle). ³¹ amburēre. ³² excipēre.
³³ magnus. ³⁴ discedēre. ³⁵ quod. ³⁶ desiderium. ³⁷ et. ³⁸ infirmus.
³⁹ mollis. ⁴⁰ parum (far from). ⁴¹ studiosissimum esse (to strive zeal.).
⁴² honestas (that — honor). ⁴³ adspicēre. ⁴⁴ lumen. ⁴⁵ potiri. ⁴⁶ (parti-
 ciple). ⁴⁷ cognoscēre. ⁴⁸ incolūmis. ⁴⁹ noscēre. ⁵⁰ suppeditare. ⁵¹ haud.
⁵² ignobilis. ⁵³ minari. ⁵⁴ inquam. ⁵⁵ iste. ⁵⁶ purpuratus.

(3) Antony, in disguise¹, gave² a letter to his wife, and while she was reading it, the compassionate man³ could not endure⁴ it. Cicero, when young⁵, engaged⁶ in the unhappy Pompeian war. Yet, when in this war, Pompey placed⁷ him over one⁸ wing⁹, he gained¹⁰ great renown in¹¹ the army. Most shun¹² labor and pain, and can endure¹³ everything, to¹⁴

be free¹⁵ from them. Antony asks rewards for his legions also¹⁶; but if he desires¹⁷ that they should be pardoned, he may well be considered¹⁸ as most shameless. Our country is the mother of us all, for which no¹⁹ good man hesitates to die²⁰, if he can do her service²¹. These twelve days have effected²², that he, whom no one then offered to¹⁴ defend, has now²³ consular men for his advocates²⁴. Marcellus wished to preserve Archimedes, and therefore, when he heard that he had been killed, he was very much displeased²⁵.

¹ velare. ² tradere. ³ homo. ⁴ ferre. ⁵ adolescens. ⁶ interesse. ⁷ praeficere. ⁸ alter. ⁹ ala. ¹⁰ consequi. ¹¹ a. ¹² fugere. ¹³ perpeti. ¹⁴ ut. ¹⁵ carere. ¹⁶ etiam. ¹⁷ (with the subjunctive). ¹⁸ judicari. ¹⁹ quis (this interrogative pronoun is used in animated discourse for *nemo*, *nullus*). ²⁰ mortem oppetere. ²¹ prodesse (subjunctive of the periphrastic conjugation). ²² proficere. ²³ jam. ²⁴ patronus. ²⁵ permoleste ferre.

VARIOUS PARTICULAR RULES FOR WRITING LATIN.

524. (1) The Latin relative words, both declinable and indeclinable, often have the sense of our *as*, when demonstrative words referring to them, stand before them. Hence it is to be observed, that,

tantus	is followed by	quantus,
tantidem	"	quanti,
talis	"	qualis,
toties	"	quoties,
tot	"	quot,
tam	"	quam,
tantopere,	"	quantopere,
tamdiu	"	quamdiu, dum, quoad,
idem	"	qui,
is	"	qui,
eiusmodi	"	qualis,
eatenus	"	quatenus.

Those of the above words that are declinable, must agree in number and gender with the substantive to which they relate; but their case depends upon the verb of their sentence; e. g. *Xerxes made war upon Greece with such a force* (*tan-*

tis exercitibus, tantis copiis), as (quantos, quantas) no one ever led either before or since. I have seen some such (tales) towards you, as (quales) you have seen towards me. Pisander was of the same feeling (eodem sensu), as (quo) Alcibiades. I do not receive letters from you so often (toties), as (quoties) they are sent me by your brother. So, conversely, when the relative words stand first, then the demonstrative words belonging to them must follow in the principal sentence; e. g. *As the head, so the herd, qualis rex, talis grex. As great as your love has been for me, so great has mine been for you, quantus tuus in me amor fuit, tantus meus in te.*

What has been remarked, § 515, should here be borne in mind, viz. that *quantus*, etc., with the words belonging to them, when they stand in an interrogative sentence, can be placed before the demonstrative sentence with *tantus*, etc., when that order seems preferable.

After *idem, aeque, perinde, pariter*, as is generally expressed by *ac* or *atque*. So often after *talis*. In the same manner, *than* is expressed by *ac* or *atque* after *alius*.

Examples.

Whom has your letter rejoiced¹ so much, as us all? Among such men, friendship gives² such great advantages³, as (that) I can scarcely name⁴ [them.] I ask⁵ you, that you would show⁶ yourself such as you have hitherto proved⁷ yourself. The citizens are usually* such in a state, as the rulers are. Many wish to have such friends, as they cannot be themselves. We do not wish to terminate our renown by the same limits, as our life. Such friendship will continue⁸ as long, as advantage will arise from it. Let us have the same feeling⁹ towards our friends, as towards ourselves. Upon no temple were there so many decrees of the senate, as upon Cicero's house. Everything is such in its kind, as nature wishes it. Albinus bought the estate¹⁰ of Laberius for as much¹¹, as they were worth¹² before the civil war. I rest¹³ as long as I am either writing to you, or am reading your letters. This is not so painful¹⁴ as it seems. When you will so regard¹⁵ this envy of others,

as I have always believed¹⁶ that it ought to be regarded, you will act¹⁷ wisely. A slave has¹⁸ the same nature, as the master. I enjoy¹⁹ here by no means as much pleasure, as I had hoped. The father of the Gracchi will be praised, as long as the remembrance of the Roman state²⁰ shall continue⁸. Honor these the same²¹ as myself. It is the same²², as if you had denied it. Duilius was, during his whole life, as²³ dear to the senators, as to the people.

¹ gaudio afficere. ² habere. ³ opportunitas. ⁴ dicere. ⁵ quaeso. ⁶ se impetrare. ⁷ praebere. ⁸ solere. ⁹ manere. ¹⁰ animo esse. ¹⁰ praedium. ¹¹ tanti. ¹² stare ¹³ requiescere. ¹⁴ tantus labor (genitive). ¹⁵ tanti facere. ¹⁶ judicare. ¹⁷ facere. ¹⁸ esse (with genitive). ¹⁹ capere. ²⁰ res Romanae. ²¹ aeque. ²² idem. ²³ pariter.

525. (2) The words *and* *not* are expressed either by *et* (*ac*) *non* or *nec*, *neque*. But the use of each is different.

Et non, ac non, are used :

(a) When a single word is to have a negative sense, in the place of which also another negative word might be put; e. g. *He taught what is to be done and not (et non) to be done. On account of a small and not (et non) necessary pleasure.* So it is often put before *necessus, opus, satis*, etc., particularly when the idea of *and above all not*, is contained in it. Hence especially :

(b) When there is a particular contrast, or when an emphasis is contained in them, and the idea, *and by no means, and not at all, and not rather, and yet not, but not*, is to be expressed. Here, however, *ac non* is mostly used; e. g. *You indeed think right, if they differed in respect to the thing, and not (ac non) in respect to the words. You mention a very trifling dispute and not (ac non) such as decides everything. Why do I call him merely happy and not rather (et non) the happiest of men? Is this to advise against and not rather (ac non) to overturn everything? It is possible that any one may think correctly, and yet not be able to express elegantly what he thinks, et — polite eloqui non possit.*

Neque is used :

526. (a) When the word *not* connects a whole sentence negatively, rather than a single word; e. g. *Epaminondas had Lysias for his teacher, and he did not dismiss him before* —, neque eum prius dimisit, quam —. *Epicurus believes that that is the same, and does not distinguish pleasure from the absence of pain*, nec distinguit a non dolendo voluptatem.

(b) When *and not* has the sense of, *and not even*; e. g. *Cato had a strong desire to read, and it could not even be satisfied*, nec satiari poterat.

(c) But it stands also, frequently for *et non* of the first case mentioned above, when it contains no contrast, e. g. *This will seem shameful and not worthy of a man*, neque viro dignum. *I burn with an incredible, and as I think, not censurable desire*, neque — reprehendenda. Yet when two words are connected by *and not*, and *et* is placed before the first word, *et non* follows in all cases; therefore, *hoc et turpe et viro non dignum videbitur*; *et incredibili, et non reprehendenda*.

Neque also signifies merely *not even*; e. g. *I ought not even to promise this*, neque debo. *I do not even think, that the Lacedemonians doubt*, neque arbitror. Here the student must be cautious not to use *etiam non*. When *not even* signifies *not so much as*, it is expressed by *ne — quidem*; e. g. *ne legere quidem scit, he cannot so much as read*.

527. But whenever another negative word stands instead of the word *not*, e. g. *no one, nothing, never, etc.*, then the negative is removed from this word and united with *and* or *even* in *neque*. Hence it is said; *and no one*, neque quisquam, neque ullus; *and nothing*, neque quidquam; *and never*, neque unquam; *and nowhere*, neque usquam; *and not yet*, neque dum; *and never anything*, neque quidquam unquam; *and never any one*, neque quisquam unquam.

As here the negation is removed from one word and is placed in another, so it also takes place without *and*, in such

English expressions, as, *never any one*, *nemo unquam*; *never anything*, *nihil unquam*, or *nunquam quidquam*; *never any one anything*, *nihil quisquam unquam*; *no one anything*, *nihil quisquam*; *no one yet*, *nondum quisquam*; *nothing yet*, *nihilum* or *nondum quidquam*; *never any one else*, *nemo unquam aliis*.

Examples on §§ 525—527.

This is a great work, and requires not a little practice. If this philosopher is consistent¹ with himself, and is not sometimes overcome by kindness of nature, he cannot respect friendship. The mind enjoys² the present pleasure, foresees the future, and does not permit³ the past to escape⁴. I came to Athens and no one recognized⁵ me. Hannibal said, he had seen no one who was a greater fool⁶, than Phormio. And in truth⁷ not unjustly⁸.—So Cicero said of himself, and did not lie in his boasting⁹. P. Scipio did not indeed¹⁰ speak much, and not often, but he excelled all in wit¹¹ and pleasantry¹². Friendship prevails¹³ through the whole¹⁴ life, and no age is without¹⁵ friendship. The earth never resists¹⁶ the dominion of man, and never returns without usury, what she has received. We have heard nothing of this. Seldom and reluctantly¹⁷ do good men indulge¹⁸ in censure, and never unless¹⁹ compelled. The earth gives to animals and to men many and various comforts; and yet the highest good of the animal²⁰ and of man can in no way be the same²¹. Then all things were²² under the control²³ of one, and nowhere did sagacity and worth²⁴ have influence²⁵. Never will a wise man believe, that a traitor ought to be trusted²⁶. I have never said, nor done anything, which could have been against your reputation²⁷. I believe that no one can do anything preëminent²⁸, except what pleases²⁹ him. This is a very long³⁰ and not sufficiently sure way. They were known to all; but yet no one knew you. Never has there been any one, neither poet, nor orator, who has believed, that any one was better than he. I would write to you more at length, if the matter required³¹ words, and would not speak for itself. Never has any scholar said, that the change of resolution was fickleness.

¹ consentire. ² percipere. ³ sinere. ⁴ praeterfluere. ⁵ agnoscere. ⁶ diligere. ⁷ inheculare. ⁸ injuria. ⁹ gloriari. ¹⁰ quidem. ¹¹ sal. ¹² facetiae. ¹³ serpere. ¹⁴ omnis. ¹⁵ expers. ¹⁶ recusare. ¹⁷ invitatus. ¹⁸ venire ad. ¹⁹ nisi. ²⁰ pecus. ²¹ idem. ²² tenetri. ²³ dominatus. ²⁴ existimatio. ²⁵ locus

esse. ²⁶ credere. ²⁷ existimatio. ²⁸ praecclare. ²⁹ libere. ³⁰ perlongus.
³¹ desiderare.

528. (3) The particles, *for not*, *but not*, *yet not*, are expressed in Latin either by *neque enim*, *neque vero*, *neque tamen*, or *non enim*, *non vero*, *non tamen*. When *neque* or *nec* is used for *non*, the nearest sentence is connected with the preceding by one of these alone, as often by *qui*, and then *nec* signifies, *not even*. Hence, *neque enim*, *neque vero*, *neque tamen*, are so often used to connect two sentences; e. g. *The Stoics say, pain is contrary to nature, yet not an evil, neque tamen malum.* *My friends do not miss me; for I have never subscribed to that ancient proverb, nec enim unquam.* *It is sometimes lawful for man to sigh, but a courageous man never sighs, except to strengthen himself, nec vero unquam ingemiscit.* *Yet nothing else delights me, neque tamen ulla res alia me delectat.* But Cicero says only *neque* or *nec vero*, not *neque (nec) autem*. In sentences, as : *For those subjects are neither so dark nor so doubtful* — the Latin says: *neque enim illae res aut ita sunt obscurae, aut ita dubiae.*

When the negation is expressed by any other word than *not*, the usage stated under § 527 is applicable; e. g. *For I do nothing, neque enim quidquam facio.* *For he never laughed, neque enim unquam risit.*

Yet *non enim*, *non vero* and *non tamen*, are also often retained; (1) in a parenthesis, where, however, the others frequently occur; (2) when there is a contrast with *sed* or *non tam — quam*, and generally, when *not* is used to distinguish a single word from another, with which it is contrasted, and (3) when the writer wishes to make the negation more prominent, which is uniformly the case where *yet not* stands in the conclusion of a sentence introduced by *although*; in short generally, where no connective *also* or *even* can be supplied in thought, which is very often the case with *non enim*; e. g. *By very many indeed (for I cannot say otherwise) I am*

honored, non enim possum aliter dicere. This orator must be read by the young; for he not only sharpens the intellect, but he nourishes it also, non enim solum. For the advantage obtained by a friend does not please so much, as, non enim tam utilitas — quam. For we ought not to become tired of friendships, as of other things, non enim amici- tiarum. For what does this mean? for I do not understand it, Quidnam est istuc? non enim intelligo. But these are not so much to be censured, as yourself, non vero tam isti, quam tu ipse. As much as I wish it, yet I cannot, tamen non potero.

For the places where neither *non vero* nor *neque vero* is proper, see § 530.

Examples.

But no one can judge of this with truth¹. Yet I knew² very well, when I wrote this. To no one of these three opinions do I give my full³ assent; for that first is not true. The power⁴ of many very influential⁵ persons excludes true friendships; for fate itself is not only blind, but generally blinds⁶ those also, to whom it has become attached⁶. That ease of mind⁷ is frequently⁸ to be thrown⁹ off; for it is not becoming¹⁰, not to undertake any honorable¹¹ action in order not to be anxious¹². The honorable and brave¹³ citizens will so guard¹⁴ the state, that he may take care¹⁵ of all. But he will, also, make no one odious¹⁶ by false accusations¹⁷. Let us do nothing inconsiderately and carelessly; for we have not been so born as to seem to be made for sport and jest. Wisdom is like Phidias, for she has not produced even man himself, but has preserved him after he was begun¹⁸ by nature. I have stated¹⁹ to you the reason of my wish (for I will not say, my desire), in my former²⁰ letter. Curius rejected²¹ the gold offered to him by the Samnites, for it did not seem to him honorable²², he said, to have gold, but to command²³ those, who had gold.

¹ vere. ² non nescium esse. ³ prorsus assentiri. ⁴ opes. ⁵ praepotens. ⁶ caecum efficere. ⁷ complecti. ⁸ securitas. ⁹ multis locis. ¹⁰ repudiare. ¹¹ consentaneum esse. ¹² honesta res. ¹³ sollicitum esse. ¹⁴ fortis. ¹⁵ tueri. ¹⁶ consulere. ¹⁷ in odium vocare. ¹⁸ crimen. ¹⁹ inchoatus. ²⁰ exponere. ²¹ superior. ²² repudiare. ²³ praeciarus. ²⁴ imperare.

529. (4) As *neque* is very often used for *et non*, so the force of *dicere* (to say) with *non* following, is usually expressed by the verb *negare* (to deny), where this is possible, and gives the proper sense; e. g. *Who can say, that wisdom is not old?* *Quis negare potest, sapientiam esse antiquam?* for *dicere, non esse.* So also *nolle* is used for *non velle.* Hence, *I will not and cannot,* is expressed by *Nolo nec possum.*

When instead of *not*, another negative word is employed, then, in Latin, the corresponding affirmative word is used in its place, according to § 527; e. g. *I say that there is no one, Nego quemquam esse.* *I wish that no one were afflicted, Nolo quemquam dolere.*

Before *ne — quidem*, *not even*, and before *nec*, *negare* is used in the sense of our English *say, affirm*; e. g. *Epicurus says, that he cannot even conjecture, Epicurus negat se posse ne suspicari quidem.* *He said that neither this nor that pleased him, Negavit ille sibi nec hoc nec illud placere.* But the verb must stand in the first part of the sentence, and not at the end; for in that case neither negative destroys the other.

In like manner a negative word can precede *ne — quidem*, but not follow it; when it is placed after, an affirmative word must stand in its place; e. g. *No one commits not even the least crime without cause*—is expressed either by, *Nemo ne minimum quidem maleficium admittit*—or *Ne minimum quidem malef. quisquam admittit.*

Dicere and *non* are retained only when a *contrast* with *sed* follows, with which the affirmative *dicere* is expressed or understood, or when the word *not* (*non*) refers to a single word, and not to the whole sentence; e. g. *I say therefore, that I do not wish this, but take it, itaque illa non dico expetere, sed sumere.* *I have not said to you that this is true, tibi non dixi.*

Examples.

Many affirm, that the mind cannot think¹ without the body. Epicurus says, that a long discussion² is not here necessary³. The Stoics have affirmed, that no one can be a good man, except⁴ a wise man. Scipio said, that no language⁵ was more dangerous⁶ to friendship, than that of Bias. I affirm that no one can live happily, unless he also lives virtuously⁷. I affirm rather, that this decision⁸ is not right, because it is not expedient. Epicurus says, that pleasure is not diminished⁹ even by length¹⁰ of time. It is foolish not to be willing to receive that which is offered. Cicero would not, and could not agree¹¹ with Caesar.

¹ intelligere. ² disputatio. ³ opus esse. ⁴ nisi. ⁵ vox. ⁶ inimicus. ⁷ honeste. ⁸ sententia. ⁹ minuere. ¹⁰ diuturnitas (length of time). ¹¹ assentiri.

530. (5) When *but* stands in a negative antithetic sentence, which is placed after an affirmative one, it is omitted in Latin, as sometimes in English, and the emphatic *non*, placed before the antithetic word, is considered sufficient; e. g. *This happened by my fault, but not by thine, non tua.* *These are the faults of character, but not of age, non senectutis.* *Sed non, non autem, nec vero,* are incorrect. So in short single confutations of an affirmation: *But falsely, also, non recte.* This also often happens, when the negative sentence stands first, and the affirmative follows, yet only when the verb is common to both sentences and is repeated; e. g. *The consulship cannot be taken from him, but life can, consulatus ei eripi non potest, vita potest.* Even in two short affirmative, antithetic sentences, *but* is omitted; e. g. *My house is open to you, but to me it is shut, mea domus tibi patet, mihi clausa est.*

Instead of *but*, we also use *and* in such connections; e. g. in the above sentence, *and not of age.* This *and* likewise is not translated.

In similar phrases *non item* (not so) is used, and placed last, or the principal word is repeated; e. g. *The spectacle was*

pleasing to you alone, but not so to the others, ceteris non item; for the mind, that was sufficient, but not for the ears, auribus non satis.—Ceteris satisfacio omnibus; mihi ipse nunquam satisfacio, *I satisfy all the others, but never myself.*

Examples.

This certainly is to deceive, not to judge. This was done¹ by the powers of the mind, but not by those of the body. Friendship has been given² by nature, as a promoter³ of virtue, but not as a partner of vice. Timidity arises⁴ from things, and not from words⁵. Those often speak the truth, but these never. So the powers of the body are strengthened⁶, not weakened⁷. I have sometimes repented of having spoken, but never of having been silent. Dionysius took⁸ the golden bowls⁹, which were held¹⁰ by the extended¹¹ hands of the gods, and said, that he accepted them, but did not take⁸ them away.

¹ effici. ²dare. ³adutrix. ⁴nasci. ⁵vocabulum: ⁶reficere. ⁷opprimere. ⁸auferre. ⁹patéra. ¹⁰sustinere. ¹¹orrectus.

531. (6) Substantives denoting persons are often used for substantives denoting things; e. g. *Consul* for *consulatus* (consulship); *Praetor* for *praetura*; *dux* for *ductus* (guidance, direction); *auctor* and *suasor* for *auctoritas* (counsel); *infans* for *infantia*; *puer* for *pueritia*; *senex* for *senectus*, and so others which can be changed in this manner.

So adjectives and participles are often used for substantives; e. g. *vivus*, *in the life* (life time); *insciens*, *ignarus*, *ignorans*, *nescius*, *from ignorance, without knowledge*; *imprudens*, *necopinans*, *without thinking, without knowing*; *sciens*, *with knowledge*; *invitus*, *contrary to one's will*; *praesens*, *in the presence of*; *absens*, *in the absence of*; *properans*, *in haste*, etc. Comp. §§ 80, 463

It should be here noticed, that with this change, the government of the words is often changed also.

Some Examples.

Scipio died before my censorship, Scipio ante me censorem mortuus est. In my consulship (when I was consul), me consule. Many live in want in their old age (when old), multi senes in egestate vivunt. I follow the guidance of nature, naturam ducem sequor. To me contrary to my will, mihi invito. Me in my absence, me absente. During my absence (while I was absent), nothing new happened, me absente.

Examples for practice.

We highly esteemed¹ those old men in our youth. Scipio answered² the expectation, which the Romans had formed³ of him in his boyhood. I was permitted⁴ in my youth, to devote⁵ myself to this study. This happened in my pretorship. By the advice⁶ of Cratippus, Cicero, when young⁷, devoted⁵ himself to the philosophy of the Peripatetics. P. Sulla, in the dictatorship of his uncle⁸, permitted the goods of the proscribed⁹ to be sold. The sons of Gracchus were esteemed¹⁰ by the good, neither in their life nor after their death¹¹. I have done this at your entreaty¹². What has been done¹³ in your consulship without arms? The conqueror must¹⁴ do much, even against his will. To no good man can anything evil happen¹⁵, neither in his life nor when he is dead. By the counsel and under the direction of Brutus, the death of Lucretia was the cause of the freedom of Rome. I know not, whether Cn. Caepio perished by shipwreck in the lifetime of his father, or after his death. This book has come¹⁵ into the hands of the people without my knowledge¹⁶ and will. In¹⁷ and after the consulship of Cicero and Antony, no war was carried on abroad¹⁸. We have written this in haste.

¹diligēre. ²respondēre. ³habēre. ⁴licēre. ⁵versari in aliqua re. ⁶auctor. ⁷puer. ⁸patruus. ⁹proscriptus. ¹⁰probare. ¹¹mortuus. ¹²hortator. ¹³gerēre. ¹⁴(verbal adjective). ¹⁵evenire. ¹⁶prudens. ¹⁷(comp. § 491). ¹⁸foris.

532. (7) When *the other* or *each other* follows a substantive or pronoun, and suggests this same substantive or pronoun to the mind, the Latin does not use *alter*, but repeats the

word, and usually places one directly after the other, so that the subject is made to stand before the oblique case; e. g. *One hand washes the other*, manus manum lavat. *One egg is very much like the other*, ovum ovo est simillimum. *The one has more strength than the other*, alius alio plus habet virium, or, when two *definite* persons are spoken of, alter altero plus h. v. *Each is concerned for the other*, uterque utriusque est cordi.

The reciprocal *each other*, when it refers to several, can also be expressed by a double *alius* after the definite substantive; e. g. *The soldiers call each other*, milites alius alium appellant; when two are referred to, *alter alterum* is used. *Uter* is usually followed by another *uter*, not by *alter*; *neuter* by another *neuter*; but *uterque*, sometimes by another *uterque*, sometimes by *alter*; therefore, *Uterque alteri est cordi*.

Examples for practice.

One guest murdered the other. Citizens envy each other. Which¹ of the two surpasses² the other? One day presses upon³ another. The judge determines⁴ what each ought⁵ to render to the other. Which of the two laid⁶ an ambush for the other? It is contrary to nature, that one man should promote his interest by the injury of another. Men can be especially⁷ serviceable to each other. When both armies stood⁸ opposite⁹ to each other, both commanders advanced¹⁰. The virtues are so connected¹¹ and united¹², that all participate¹³ in each other, and¹⁴ no one can be separated from the others.

¹ *uter* (which of two). ² *praestare*. ³ *trudere*. ⁴ *statuere*. ⁵ *oportere*.
⁶ *facere*. ⁷ *maxime*. ⁸ *esse*. ⁹ *contra*. ¹⁰ *prodire*. ¹¹ *copulatus*. ¹² *conexus*. ¹³ *participem esse*. ¹⁴ *nec aliis*.

533. (8) The phrase, *the one this, the other that*, the Latins express more briefly by a double *alius* or *alter*. *Alius* is used, when the number is indefinite, but *alter* only of two, and is to be used but seldom. These words are put in such cases as the nature of the sentence requires. Instead of the second word, adverbs derived from *alius* are also used, where it is necessary, e. g. *aliter*, *alio*, *aliunde*, *alias*; e. g. *One*

thinks this (so, one thing), another that (so, another), aliis aliud cogitat. This seems best to one, that to another, or one thing seems best to one, another to another, aliis (aliis) aliud videtur optimum. One went here, another there, aliis alio concessit. One is moved in one way, another in another, aliis alio modo movetur.

Examples for practice.

The one is more useful¹ in one thing, the other in another. Some think a happy life consists in this, others in that. Those orators are deficient in two very important² things, one³ in this, the other in that. This disaster⁴ befell⁵ one, that another. The infant Hercules seized⁶ the serpents, one with one hand, the other with the other. One will prefer to excel in one virtue, another in another. No one of the ancient poets embraced the whole⁷ department⁸ of poetry, but one selected⁹ this, another that branch, in order to cultivate¹⁰ it carefully. The same things in one¹¹ place are named in one way, in another, another. One mind is inclined to this vice, another to that.

¹utilis. ²magnus. ³alter. ⁴clades. ⁵opprimere. ⁶apprehendere.
⁷universus. ⁸genus. ⁹sibi seponere. ¹⁰elaborare (to — carefully).
¹¹alibi.

534. (9) The word *namely*, is often employed in English, to specify definitely the names of persons or things, which before had been mentioned only generally or indefinitely. This word is, for the most part, omitted in Latin, but if expressed, it is done by using *dico* or *inquam* after the word first named, but not by *scilicet*, *videlicet*, *nempe*, *nimirum*,—which have a different signification; e. g. *Zeno abused not only those then living, namely, Apollodorus, Syllus, and the rest, but also, qui tum erant, Apollodorum, Syllum ceterosque.* *We have neither the external parts in vain, nor the internal, namely, the heart, the lungs, the liver and the others, nec interiora, cor, pulmones, jecur, cetera.* *He feared, more than all, that which he thought not fearful, namely, death and the gods, mortem dico (I mean) et deos.*

In the phrase, *On the following day, namely, the first of April*—and in similar ones—the Latins say either, *Postridie,*

qui fuit dies Kalendar. Aprilium, or Id est Kal. April.
Comp. § 520.

Examples.

He must be most respected, who possesses¹ the gentler² virtues, namely, modesty, temperance and justice. Man, as Aristotle says, is born for two things, namely, to think³ and to act. The ancient musicians, who were at the same time⁴ also poets, devised⁵ two things for pleasure, namely, verse and music⁶. Both⁷ of these therefore, namely, melody⁸ of tone⁹ and the harmonious¹⁰ arrangement of words, the orators transferred¹¹ from poetry to oratory. This man violates two most sacred things, namely, truth and friendship.

¹ ornatum esse. ² lenis. ³ intelligēre. ⁴ idem (at — also). ⁵ machinari. ⁶ cantus. ⁷ duo. ⁸ moderatio. ⁹ vox. ¹⁰ conclusio (harmonious arrangement). ¹¹ traducēre.

535. (10) The English *both* can be translated by the singular *uterque*, and also by the plural *utriusque*, yet the best Latin writers distinguish between them.

The singular *uterque* is used, (1) when it refers to two preceding words in the singular; e. g. *To Caesar and Pompey — both, uterque*; *to justice and equity — both, utrāque*. (2) When a substantive belongs to it, which in English is indeed in the plural, but yet only individual persons or things are to be understood by the word *both*. Therefore, the substantive must conform to the singular *uterque*; e. g. *Both brothers, uterque frater*; *both armies, uterque exercitus*. When these are the subjects of the sentence, Cicero uses the verb only in the singular; e. g. *Both waged war, uterque gessit*; *both brothers died, uterque frater mortuus est*. Hence it happens also, that we find in Cicero only *uterque nostrum* (*both of us or we both*), *uterque horum* (*both of these*) and the like, when only two individuals are meant. As *uterque* is the principal word, it takes only the third person singular of the verb, even with *uterque nostrum*, *we both*, and *uterque vestrum*, *you both*: e. g. *We both agree, uterque nostrum consentit*. Comp. § 145. *Both the others is expressed by uterque alter.*

The plural *utriusque* is used, (1) when it refers to two preceding words in the plural,—when therefore two parties are spoken of; e. g. *Of the partisans of Caesar and Pompey, utriusque; of the sterner and gentler virtues, utraeque; of orators and poets — both these, hi utriusque; we both, nos utriusque.* (2) When a substantive is connected with it, which is used only in the plural, at least, in a certain sense, only in the plural; e. g. *Both camps, utraque castra; both armies, utraeque copiae.* The same distinction is made between *uter* and *utri.*

Examples.

If¹ eternity is taken² away, Jupiter is in no respect happier than Epicurus; for both enjoy the highest good. At that time, Gracchus and Carbo lived; both were very distinguished³ orators. There is nothing so unlike, as Cotta was to Sulpicius; and yet both very far excelled⁴ their contemporaries⁵. Cicero came to help⁶ both provinces. The body of Curio swayed⁷ to both sides⁸. The ambassadors of the Achaeans and Ætolians came to Rome; an assembly⁹ of the senate was granted¹⁰ to both. The world is, as it were, a common house of gods and men, or a city of both. We will both rest in company¹¹ at this country seat. These both, as I know, have commended their children to you. In this studio, you both find¹² your pleasure.

¹ (participle). ² demere. ³ summus. ⁴ praestare. ⁵ aequalis. ⁶ subvenire. ⁷ vacillare. ⁸ pars. ⁹ senatus (assembly of senate). ¹⁰ dare. ¹¹ una. ¹² delectari.

536. (11) Our expressions, *voluntarily, of one's self, of one's own accord*, are very often expressed in Latin by *sponte*. But to this is usually added one of the possessives *mea, tua*, etc., according to the difference of the subject; e. g. *I did this of my own accord, ego hoc feci mea sponte; we do this of our own accord, nostra sponte hoc facimus.* In these phrases, the possessives are regularly to be placed before, and not after *sponte*, because they are emphatic, except when the person is made prominent by an *ipse* standing in the sentence, as in Cicero (pro Sext. 47), *audaces homines nutu im-*

pelluntur, et ipsi etiam sponte sua contra rempublicam incitantur.

So the mode of translating the English *with each other*, depends upon the difference of the subject, since it can be expressed by *inter nos, vos* and *se*; e. g. *We contend with each other*, contendimus inter nos. But when it does not refer to the subject of the sentence, but to a subordinate substantive, *inter se* is not used, but either *inter ipsos*, or the substantive is repeated; e. g. *The association of men with each other*, societas hominum inter ipsos or inter homines.

The English *perhaps* is most commonly expressed, in Cicero, by *fortasse*, or by *forsitan*, which is almost exclusively joined with the subjunctive, but not by *forsan*, which is poetical and unclassical, nor by *fortassis*, which was more used by later writers, nor by *fors, fors sit, fortasse an* or *forte an*. It is also expressed by *forte*, but only with *si, sin, nisi* and *ne*, with which the foregoing words are incorrect; e. g. *if anything perhaps was lost, si quid forte; unless perhaps, nisi forte*.

Examples.

Must you be exhorted¹ by us, or are you inclined² to it of your own accord even? We have said to each other what we have never said. Pompey was often accustomed to speak of you to me, of his own accord. We hate Hannibal, and perhaps with reason. You advise us to do what we have been doing of ourselves for some days. When you are with each other, say whatever³ you wish. The Romans and Sabines made⁴ an alliance with each other. You contend with each other, with words, but not with arms. There is nothing which reaches⁵ farther, than the connection⁶ of men with each other. If you perchance know⁷ any one, who is more attached⁸ to you than to your circumstances⁹, gladly indeed¹⁰ rank¹¹ him among your friends.

¹ adhortari. ² propensus. ³ quidquid. ⁴ facere. ⁵ latius patere. ⁶ conjunctio. ⁷ cognoscere. ⁸ amans. ⁹ vero. ¹⁰ adscribere ad suorum numerum (rank am. one's friends).

537. (12) The two following modes of expression are contrary to all good classical usage :

(a) The participial phrases, viz. *the so called, above, before, after named, just mentioned*, and the like, which often occur in English, are frequently translated by participles *ita (sic) dictus, supra (prae, ante, post) dictus, modo (proxime, ante) memoratus, nominatus*. But such constructions were used first by writers after the time of Augustus, whereas the classical writers employ only a periphrasis with *qui*; e. g. *The so called greatness of soul, altitudo animi, quae dicitur or quam dicimus. I and our Atticus have heard the philosophers I just named, philosophos illos, quos modo nominavi. A tax was imposed upon the inhabitants of the province, called the stipendarium, quod stipendarium dicitur. In Italy is situated the so called Magna Graecia, or M. G. as it is called, Graecia, quae magna dicta est. The meadows of Quintius, as they are called, or the so called, etc., prata Quinticia, quae nominantur. At Sybaris, now called Thurii, Sybari, qui nunc Thurii dicuntur. In the book entitled "The Natural Philosopher," in eo libro, qui Physicus inscribitur. Together with the one last named by me, una cum eo, quem proxime nominavi.*

In the phrases *above, before, just named, mentioned*, when the active verb is used, its personal form shows, who named or mentioned the object. The connection, however, makes this plain in English.

(b) When we say in English : The word *idleness* is derived from the adjective *idle, knowledge* from the verb *know*, the name *Cicero* from *cicer*, and the like, in such instances in Latin, every declinable word is really declined, and considered as depending on a word of the sentence, and is put in the necessary case, but is not allowed to stand in the nominative. Usually also the English expletives, *the word, adjective, verb* and the like, are omitted; e. g. *What*

we call lenitas, others call by a faulty name, lenitudo, Quam lenitatem dicimus, alii vitioso lenitudinis nomine appellant. The poets say Ceres instead of fruits, Liber instead of wine, Neptune instead of the sea, poetae Cererem dicunt pro frugibus, Librum pro vino, Neptunum pro mari. The ancients say, that the name Neptune, is derived from nare (to swim), veteres Neptunum dicunt appellatum esse a nando. From fari comes the word fanum, from voluntas and from volatus, the verb volo, a fando dictum est fanum, a volatu volo. Let us avoid the ambiguous name, invidia, effugiamus ambiguum nomen invidiae. The name Apollo is a Grecian name, Apollinis nomen est Graecum —. I am more to be blamed because I added the word in, quod in addidi —. But no change is made by declension, where one form of a word stands for another, or where for a single word, this or that other one should have stood; or where, from their nature, the words must remain unchanged; e. g. Sodes pro si audes; nolle for non velle; pro industriae dicendum erat industriam; nos quid juvat vox ista veto (that word veto); quam crebo usurpat et consul et Antonius (how often he uses the words the consul and Antonius).

Examples for practice.

We assembled in this gymnasium, called Ptolemaeum. Phalaris did not perish by¹ ambush, as Alexander, just² mentioned by me. The stoics do not reckon³ the seven wise men, as they are called, among⁴ the wise. Upon⁵ Lentulus, Cethegus, and the others mentioned above, capital⁶ punishment was inflicted⁷. Did⁸ old⁹ age compel Homer, Hesiod, did it compel those before named, Isocrates and Gorgias, to be speechless¹⁰? The books of Plato on the state, the so called Politics, were held¹¹ in high respect¹² among the ancients. This book is in no respect better known, than the three books before mentioned by you. Your so called life, is death. The word aratrum has its name¹³ from arare, messis from metere, scriptor from scribere, hosticus from hustes. The

word *tibicen* comes¹³ from *tibiae* and *canere*. What the Latins call *furor*, the Greeks call μελαγχολία. The name Bacchus, is Greek, on the contrary, the name Liber, is Latin. I believe, that Juno was named from *juvare*, as the name Janus was derived¹⁴ from *ire*. What the Greeks call εὐδοξία, it is more proper¹⁵ to call *bona fama*, than *gloria*. The word¹⁶ piety seems to be too feeble¹⁷ for your kindness to me.

¹ ex. ² modo. ³ habēre. ⁴ in numero. ⁵ de. ⁶ supplicium. ⁷ sumēre.
⁸ (num is used to ask questions.) ⁹ senectus. ¹⁰ obmutescere. ¹¹ esse.
¹² honor. ¹³ dici. ¹⁴ duci. ¹⁵ aptus. ¹⁶ nomen. ¹⁷ levis.

538. (13) The word *without* is expressed in different ways:

(a) By a substantive with the preposition *sine* or such a word as *nullus*; e. g. *I dismissed him, without praising him, sine laudatione; without any fear, nullo timore; without any merit of mine, nullo meo merito.*

(b) By *ut non* (so that not), or, where a negative sentence precedes, by *quin*, or also by *ut* and a negative verb; e. g. *Apelles passed no day without practising his art in drawing, quin (ut non) exerceret artem. The Decii devoted themselves to their country, without in the least thinking of their own advantage, nihil ut de commodis suis cogitarent. Can L. Cornelius be condemned, without the deed of Marius being condemned, ut non Marii factum condemnatur? Without mentioning, ut taceam, ut omittam.*

(c) By *qui non*, followed by a subjunctive. This is especially the case, when there is a pronoun in the sentence, which refers to a substantive previously mentioned. But when *qui non* would follow in the nominative, *quin* is generally used in its place. Compare § 400. *Verres saw nothing valuable in Sicily without carrying it away, quem non abstulerit. Who has sailed upon the sea without exposing himself to the danger of death? quin (qui non) se mortis periculo committeret.*

(d) By a negative participial sentence, which is the most usual. Respecting which see above, § 467.

(e) By the ablative of the gerundive or the verbal adjec-

tive with a negative word; e. g. *Who, without carefully plowing the field, can expect rich fruits?* *agronon diligenter arando.*

(f) By *neque* (and not), when this analysis is appropriate; e. g. *Horatius Cocles swam over the Tiber, without throwing away his arms,* *neque arma dimittiit.*

(g) By *quum* and a negative word, when the clause admits such an analysis; e. g. *He left the city without having seen anything,* *quum nihil vidisset.* Finally,

(h) By negative adjectives, among which may be particularly mentioned, such as begin with *in*; e. g. *inscius, insciens, ignarus, without knowing; immemor, without thinking;* also *imprudens, incognitus, etc.* These are treated as participles; e. g. *Many lie without knowing it, multi mentiuntur ignari.* *Datames came without any one's knowing it,* *D. omnibus insciis eo venit.* *The commander has betrayed you, without your knowing it,* *dux vos ignaros prodidit.*

The connection must decide what mode of translation is most natural; and there may be cases, where a different mode of translation from those here stated, might properly be used.

Examples.

Our age gradually¹ becomes old² without its being perceived³. How can we pass⁴ our life without fear⁵? Even he who hates men cannot live without seeking⁶ some one⁷, with whom to vent⁸ the poison⁹ of his bitterness. A rumor does not easily¹⁰ arise without some reason¹¹. The elder Pliny read nothing without making extracts¹² from it. The consuls returned home without having accomplished¹³ anything worthy of notice¹⁴. The youth wept long, without speaking¹⁵. Perseus went¹⁶ to the camp, without another of his soldiers as a companion¹⁷. Minucius announced, that, at Locris, money had been stolen from the temple of Proserpine, without¹⁸ there being any traces to whom the crime belonged¹⁹. Two young Acarnanians had gone²⁰ into the temple of Ceres without being acquainted²¹ with the religious²²

usage. I have torn²³ the letter without its deserving²⁴ it. Magnify the dignity of Arrian, without his expecting²⁵ it, without his knowing²⁶ it, yea²⁷, even perhaps without his wishing²⁸ it. Many have done²⁹ much without the knowledge³⁰ of Sulla. Many cannot lose their fortunes in a state, without drawing many others into the same calamity. In this matter, nothing has been done by my colleague without my knowledge³¹.

¹sensim. ²senescere. ³sensus. ⁴degere. ⁵metus. ⁶anquirere.
⁷aliquis. ⁸evomere. ⁹virus. ¹⁰temere. ¹¹subesse. ¹²excerpere aliquid.
¹³gerere (participle). ¹⁴res memorabilis. ¹⁵tacitus. ¹⁶ingredi. ¹⁷comes.
¹⁸(with neque). ¹⁹pertinere. ²⁰ingredi. ²¹imprudens. ²²religio (religious usage). ²³conscindere. ²⁴innocens. ²⁵inopinans. ²⁶nesciens.
²⁷imo. ²⁸nolens. ²⁹committere. ³⁰imprudens. ³¹insciens.

539. (14) The pronoun *is*, *ea*, *id*, when it refers to a following *who*, *which* (*qui*), is very often either omitted, or, when the sentence with *qui* precedes, is put emphatically in the first part of the principal sentence that follows; especially, when *qui*, *quae*, *quod*, attracts to itself the substantive, which belongs to *is*, *ea*, *id*; but the omission takes place, for the most part, only when both are in the same case. Yet the pronoun *is* stands as frequently before *qui*, when definite expression is required. Comp. § 123.

But when an intervening explanatory sentence with *and this*, *and that* or *what*, refers not to a single substantive, but to an entire preceding or following remark, and the sentence is only parenthetic, then the Latins generally employ the full expression *id quod*; e. g. *Whoever sufficiently understands, and that is clearer than the light, that —, id quod est luce clarius. But that Greek, and that was an evidence of a wise and distinguished man, believed —, id quod fuit sapientis et praestantis viri.*

540. (15) The phrase *not only not*, followed by *but not even*, *but scarcely* and the like negatives, is expressed by *non modo* (*solum*) *non*, followed by *sed ne — quidem* (*sed vix* and the like):

(a) When both clauses are complete, so that they have

their own predicates, which are to be negated, whether the subjects are the same or different.

Examples. Non solum excellentes viri deterriti non sunt, sed ne opifices quidem se removerunt. Id non modo non feci, sed ne potui quidem facere. Hic non modo non huic proelio praererat, sed ne intererat quidem.

(b) When both clauses have indeed a common predicate, but this stands with *non modo* in the first clause. Since the first is to be negated, *non* cannot be admitted after *non modo*; the predicate must be understood in the second, and as here *ne — quidem* denies, therefore both are negative.

Examples. Horum summorum imperatorum non modo res gestas non antepono meis, sed ne fortunam quidem ipsam. Non modo pristinam voluntatem recuperare non potui, verum ne causam quidem elicere. Dolabella non modo proficisci non potuit, sed vix in oppido consistere.

On the contrary, merely *non modo* (solum) without *non*, followed by *sed ne — quidem* (*sed vix* and other negatives), is used, when the common predicate of both clauses is appended to the second clause, in which case it is negatively understood in the first.

Examples. Ego non modo praemiis (*not only not by rewards*), sed ne periculis quidem compulsus sum. Hae virtutes non solum in his hominibus (*not only not in these men*), sed vix jam in libris reperiuntur. Ita non modo querendi (*not only no end of complaining*), sed ne lugendi quidem finem pererimus.

Remarks.

(1) Instead of the second *not* in the first clause, another negative word can also be used, e. g. *no one, nothing, never, etc.*, for which, in the last case with *non modo* without *non*, the words *quisquam, quidquam, unquam* are used.

But natural as it seems, that in the first two cases, *non modo non*, and in the third case, merely *non modo* should be used, and although this is the predominant construction, yet there are many passages in Cicero and others, where in the first two cases *non modo* is found, and in the last, *non modo non*, and more especially in this last case, perhaps that by the negation, the antitheses may be made more prominent; e. g. Quum filius non modo non mortuus, sed ne natus quidem esset: ita ille vivit, ut non modo homini nemini, sed ne cupiditati quidem ulli serviat. But whether *non modo* has been also used for *non modo non*, before *sed etiam*, is very doubtful.

(2) The position of the clauses may be inverted, so that *ne quidem* stands first. The following *non modo* is then translated by *not to say, much less*; e. g. *The oracles of Apollo never satisfy even an ordinary*

man, much less (not to say) a wise man, ne mediocri quidem, non modo prudenti probata sunt. Even swine would not like that, much less he, ne sues quidem id velint, non modo ipse. So, I had nothing at all, much less a great deal, etc., nihil habui sane, non modo multum.

(3) Similar, but not to be interchanged with *non modo*, is the preventive *nendum*, which is also translated by *not to say, not to say that*. By this something is rejected as not conceivable, because something else, that might *more easily* happen, does not happen. It generally takes a complete sentence in the subjunctive; e. g. *In the ebst times, the greatest men could not bear up against the power of the tribunes, not to say that we, or, much less can we, in our times, be safe, nedum his temporibus — possimus.* This sentence is sometimes abbreviated, and *nendum* stands like an adverb, without a finite verb. E. g. *Ill could the shock of such a multitude unarmed be sustained, much less armed, segreg inermis tanta multudo, nedum armata, sustineri potuit, (in full), nedum arm. sust. potuerit.*

Examples for practice.

Flattery¹ is not only not worthy of a friend, but not even of a freeman. Not only no one of his friends, but not even one of his slaves went² to the body of the murdered³ Caesar. Such a man ought not only not to be considered⁴ as a commander, but in general⁵, not even a freeman. Such a government is not only to be suffered by no Roman, but not even by a⁶ Persian. Roscius has not only not committed this crime⁷, but could not even have done it. You have not only not been in Rome, but far from this city. A good man will not only not dare to do anything, but not even to think of anything, which he cannot dare to speak⁸ of openly. Then, it was not only not lawful for the Senate to assist⁹ the state, but not even to mourn for it. I not only do not accuse¹⁰ you of this crime, but I do not even blame¹¹ you with just censure¹². Antony can not only not endure the voice, but not even the look¹³ of any one. If perhaps letters have been sent¹⁴ to you more seldom by me than by others, I ask you not only not to¹⁵ attribute this to my negligence, but not even to my business¹⁶. Whatever shall befall¹⁷ me in a state so ungrateful, will find¹⁸ me not even declining¹⁹, much less opposing²⁰ it. Scarcely under²¹ our very²² roofs is the cold avoided, much less on the sea is it easy to escape²³ the rigor of the season²⁴. I could not think that even immortality was to be accepted against the interests of²⁵ the state, much less could I wish to die to²⁶ the ruin of the state.

¹ assentatio. ² accedere. ³ trucidare. ⁴ habere. ⁵ omnino. ⁶ quisquam. ⁷ facinus. ⁸ praedicare (to speak openly). ⁹ juvare. ¹⁰ arguere. ¹¹ repre-

hendere. ¹² *reprehensio.* ¹³ *vultus.* ¹⁴ *reddere.* ¹⁵ *ut.* ¹⁶ *occupatio.* ¹⁷ *accidere.* ¹⁸ *evenire* (with dat.). ¹⁹ *recusare.* ²⁰ *repugnare.* ²¹ *in.* ²² *ipse.* ²³ *abesse.* ²⁴ *tempus.* ²⁵ *contra.* ²⁶ *cum.*

(541. b.) (16) It is very common to express an affirmative superlative by a negative comparative, therefore by *nemo*, *nullus*, *nihil*, or the interrogative *quis*, *quid*, where the sentence admits it, especially in relative sentences, respecting which see § 523.

Examples. *The elephant is the most discerning of all animals, elephanto belluarum nulla prudentior est.* *Man is the most beautiful of beings, quid (nihil) homine est pulchrius?*

(541. c.) (17) The Latins frequently express affirmative ideas by two negatives; e. g. *Non ignoro, non nescio, non sum ignorans (nescius), I know well;* *non possum non* (followed by an infinitive), or, *non possum facere, quin—, I cannot but, I must;* *neque non, and* (for *et*), *neque tamen non, and yet—and the like;* *ne-mo non, every one;* *nullus non* (as an adjective), *each one, every one;* *nunquam non, always;* *nusquam non, everywhere;* *nihil non, everything, all;* *non nisi, only* (comp. § 477); *nihil nisi, only that, only this.*

Yet, *non nemo* signifies *many, many a one, some one;* *non nullus, some;* *non nihil, something;* *non nunquam, sometimes;*—when the words are thus placed, *non* diminishes the negative force of the following word.

(541. d.) (18) In Cicero and others, the full periphrastic construction with *facere, ut*, for the single verb following, is very frequent, and is to be imitated.

Examples. *Come, or, be sure to come, fac venias. You can mention this, tu potes id facere, ut commemores.* *I reluctantly banished him from the senate, invitum feci, ut eum e senatu ejicere.* *I thought I must write to you, faciendum mihi putavi, ut tibi scribere.* Here belong also *velim quaeras, ask him;* *no-lim te existimare, do not believe.* Respecting *non committere, ut*, as the negative of *facere, ut*, see § 552. 6.

(541. e.) (19) When a sentence begins with, *As it respects this, that*, or simply with *that*, in reference to the words of another, or with *ut* or *ne*, e. g. *That you may perceive, that I must do this, ut intelligas*, then the phrases, *As it respects*

this, hear (*audi*), *know* (*scito*), *I will say to you* (*tibi dicam*), which are almost necessary in English, are generally omitted in Latin, while *that, which any one should know or hear* follows immediately in the *oratio recta* with the indicative.

Examples. In order that you may understand this, (*know,*) that as soon as Varro came to the forum, he visited me, ut hoc intelligas, quum primum Varro — venit, se contulit. And that my oration may commence where this whole cause originates, (*know,* or *I will inform you*) that — atque ut inde oratio mea proficiatur, unde haec omnis causa ducitur, bellum grave vestris vectigalibus infertur. As it respects this, that you wish (*as to your wish*) to know what is the feeling of each one, know that (*I will say to you*) it is difficult to speak particularly of each one, quod scire vis, qua quisque voluntate sit; difficile dictu est de singulis.

Examples on §§ (541 b.)—(541. e.)

I will not vex¹ thy mind with complaints². Every one must³ especially⁴ praise thy resolution. I thought I must⁵ answer your letter briefly. Philosophy has always been most dear⁶ to me in life, and it is the great gift that has been conferred upon the human race. I have succeeded⁷, by every indulgence*, in being most dear⁶ to both. Although all know well, how things stand⁸, yet I will mention some. What I have said, must³ be said honorably⁹ for you. After you have departed, remember¹⁰ what I have said of you in the senate. He permitted me to¹¹ swear only this. You desire¹² my letters; but I have always¹³ furnished¹⁴ a letter for you, when it was told me that any one was going¹⁵. As it respects your request¹⁶, that I would send you my writings, know that there are some of my speeches which I have given to Menocritus. That you may not wonder, why I now so earnestly ask respecting this, I will tell you: The desire of haste¹⁷ incites¹⁸ me.

¹ angere (accord. to no. d.). ² querela. ³ non possum non. ⁴ maxime.
⁵ (accord. to no. d.). ⁶ carus (accord to no. b.). ⁷ efficere ut. * obsequium.
⁸ se habere. ⁹ honorifice. ¹⁰ recordari (accord. to no.d.). ¹¹ ut. ¹² requirere.
¹³ (accord. to no. c.). ¹⁴ dare. ¹⁵ ire. ¹⁶ rogare. ¹⁷ festinatio. ¹⁸ incendere.

USE OF PREPOSITIONS.

542. In the use of prepositions, we differ, in many respects, from the Latins. The force of many of our prepositions is expressed in Latin by the genitive case depending on a substantive; e. g. *Desire of glory, gloriae; fear of punishment, timore puniendi*.

ment, poenae. Comp. § 134. Further; the force of English prepositions is often expressed by the genitive or dative depending on adjectives; e. g. *Useful for the body, corpori; skilled in law, juris.* Finally, we often join prepositions with verbs, where the Latins put merely the appropriate case after the verb; e. g. *To strive for glory, petere gloriam.*

Remark. The difference between the Latin and English, in the use of prepositions, is owing mostly to the fact, that the Latin nouns are declined, while the English are not. The termination of the Latin nouns, therefore, can indicate the relation which must be expressed in English by prepositions.

On the other hand, we often find prepositions used in both languages, but in Latin not always those we should expect, according to the English. The greater attention must therefore be paid to the various and unexpected constructions that occur, and to a proper choice from among them. Thus, *Contrary to expectation*, is expressed by *praeter expectationem*; *in and of — self*, by *per se*; *you have my permission*, by *per me licet*, also simply by *per me*; *to speak according to, govern one's self by the will, pleasure, etc., of some one*, by *ad voluntatem, ad nutum alicujus loqui, se conformare, accommodare*; *to happen according to one's wish, ex sententia*. *Per* is sometimes used where we say *on account of*; e. g. *I could come on account of my health*, or *my health allowed me to come*, *per valetudinem potui venire*. *I could not come on account of the weather*, *per tempestatem venire non potui*.

Hence a good lexicon must be used, and, if accessible, some book on Latin particles.

Only the following will be mentioned here:

543. (1) Many English adverbs are best expressed in Latin by a preposition and substantive; e. g. *Literally, ad literam; unexpectedly, ex improviso; heartily, ex animo; slanderously, per calumniam; insidiously, treacherously, per insidias*, etc. Comp. § 211. Rem. (1.)

544. (2) The Latins often join participles with certain

substantives, especially with such as denote *feeling* or *an affection of the mind*, e. g. *From (by) fear, on account of this injury*, for the purpose of expressing the ideas contained in the substantives more fully, than they otherwise would be. Such a participle is chosen as is adapted to the idea of the substantive, and as will express the thought most appropriately and vividly. The most usual participles are: *motus, commotus, permotus, ductus, adductus, inductus, incitatus, impulsus, incensus, inflammatus, perterritus, victus, doctus, corruptus, impeditus, deterritus, captus, coactus*, etc.; e. g. *From displeasure, from disgust, taedio victus; on account of this injury, ea contumelia commotus; from experience, re doctus; from (by) love, amore captus; from want, inopia adductus; from (by) desire, aviditate incensus; from fear, metu coactus, timore perterritus; from rage, furore impulsus; on account of feeble health, valedutinis imbecillitate impeditus; from pity, misericordia captus; from folly, stultitia obcaecatus; from shame, verecundia deterritus.* So, *benevolentia impulsus, odio inductus, spe inductus, familiaritate inductus (adductus)*. *He did not do it from religious scruples, religione impeditus; why, wherefore, quibus rebus adductus, and so others.* In English, however, we often supply words similar to the Latin.

In like manner, instead of adjectives or the simple ablative of quality, the participle *praeditus* is often used in helping to designate internal and external endowments, but only with persons; e. g. *Tu, tali sapientia praeditus, you, so wise a man; Curio, summo ingenio et prudentia praeditus, a man of the greatest understanding and wisdom.* Further; *Insigni pietate, virtute, fide, crudelitate, singulari immanitate, beneficiis, audacia, cupiditate, scelere, spe, metu, imperio, potestate, auctoritate, sacerdotio praeditus,—and so with other ablatives.*

The participle *usus* is joined with a noun, to denote that which is used as a means *by which* or *with which* something is done; e. g. *With his help, auxilio, ejus ope usus; by this mode of life, hac vitae ratione usus; by this fortune, ea (qua) fortuna usus; by many machines, tormentis multis usus, and so others.*

So, *with* is expressed by *ornatus, instructus*, and *without* by *non ornatus, non instructus*; e. g. *Without knowledge or learning, nulla cognitione rerum, nulla scientia ornatus.*

In such phrases as, *Of a distinguished, low, obscure family, natus* is used : *Summo loco, humili atque obscuro loco natus*.

Where we say of writings, *in Greek, Latin, in prose, in verse —, scriptus, compositus* and the like are added ; e. g. *I have sent you a sketch of my consulship in Greek, commentarium consulatus mei Graece compositum misi ad te.*

Finally, in the phrase, *He moved in the splendour of a triumph, a festive parade* and the like, *circundatus, fulgens, celebratus*, or a similar word, must be added to *splendore*.

CONSTRUCTION OF SEVERAL VERBS.

545. In the section on the government of cases, many verbs have been already mentioned, which have a construction different from the English. But they could not all be stated there, and even in this section all the others will not be adduced. The student should refer throughout to good lexicons. But every construction there quoted is not to be imitated, unless it has the authority of the best writers. Let the student therefore be cautious in their use.

Only certain verbs will here be introduced.

A b d e r e se in locum, *to conceal one's self in a place.* Hence, abdere se domum, *to conceal one's self at home, in his house;* Roma in, *in Rome;* in Graeciam, *in Greece.* But the participle *abditus* is sometimes construed with *in* and the ablative, because the act of concealing is already completed. The figurative phrase, *to be absorbed in letters, or to devote one's self to letters,* is expressed by, *se in litteras or se litteris abdere.*

A b d i c a r e se aliquare, *to free one's self from something, to resign, to lay down;* e. g. Consulatu, *to resign the consulship;* tutela, *to give up the guardianship.*

A b i r e ab aliqua re, *to go away, to depart from something;* e. g. E loco, *from a place.* But magistratu, *to resign an office.*

A b j u d i c a r e aliquid ab aliquo, *to take something from some one, by sentence or verdict;* but sibi aliquid, *to take something from one's self, to say and judge that one has not something.*

A c c o m m o d a r e aliquid ad aliquid, *to fit something to something, to adjust according to something,* *se ad aliquid, to accommodate one's self to something, to adapt,* both in the figurative sense. In the physical sense, *to fit something to something, to attach* is expressed by, accom. aliquid alicui, e. g. capiti, but when the personal object is in the dative, by ad caput; e. g. ei coronam ad caput accom. Also to lend something to some one is expressed by, accom. aliquid alicui, and to be obliging to one, by accom. se alicui.

A c t u m e s t de me, *it is all over with me.*

A d i r e aliquem, locum and ad aliquem, ad locum, *to go to one, to go to a place.* But aditus ad aliquem, *access to, audience with some one.*

A djunge re alicui, ad aliquem, *to connect with something.*

A dmonere aliquem de aliqua re, *to admonish one of something, to remind;* aliquem alicujus rei, *to remind one of something.*

A dspirare ad aliquid, *to strive for something, to seek to obtain something; in is used only with places, in locum.*

A dsuescere, *see assuface re.*

A dulari aliquem and alicui, *to flutter one; before Livy aliquem, after alicui.* The word does not occur in Caesar.

A dvenire in locum, *to come to a place.* Hence, *He came home, to Delphi, advenit domum, Delphos.* So also the substantive, adventus in locum, e. g. in urbem. *Where? quo? here, huc; there, illuc, istuc.*

A fferre alicui aliquid, or ad aliquem aliquid, *to bring something to some one, to procure for, to announce something to one.* In the passive, assertur mihi or ad me de aliqua re, *something is announced to me.* Yet only aff. alicui vim, manus, necem and the like.

A lie nare aliquem ab aliquo, *to make one dislike another, to estrange one from another.*

A ppellare aliquem, *to name one, to call to, to appeal to one.*

A pelli ad locum aliquem, *to be driven to a place, to land somewhere;* e. g. Navis appellitur ad littus, milites navigiis appelluntur in Africam. *Where? quo? there, e o.* In the active, only of the person, who causes a ship to land, or drives it somewhere: *nauta, (or whoever is in the ship, or even ventus) appellit navem.*

A ssue face re alicui rei, ad aliquid, *to accustom one to something.* So, *assuefieri, assuescere, assuetus.*

A ttendere aliquid or aliquem, *to attend to something or some one, to be attentive to; but with animus or animos — ad aliquid (ad aliquem).*

A ttinere ad aliquid, ad aliquem, *to concern anything, any one, to relate to; e. g. This in no respect concerns me, hoc nihil ad me attinet, and briefly, nihil ad me.*

A udire aliquid, *to hear, to listen to something;* aliquem, *to hear, to listen to some one, to give ear to, to obey some one;* de aliqua re or aliquo, *to hear of or concerning some person or thing, but also ex or de aliquo, to hear something from one, who relates something;* Cicero seldom says ab aliquo. *Audire bene (male) ab aliquo, to hear good (ill) of one's self from some one, i. e. to be held in good (evil) repute, to be praised (blamed) by some one.* The participle *audiens* in the sense of *obedient* has the dative *alicui,* in the best writers always with the additional *dicto;* e. g. *Audiens alicui dicto. obedient to the word of any one.*

A userre ab aliquo aliquid, *to take, to tear something from one.*

A uspicari ab aliqua re, *to begin with something.* Comp. *incipere.*

C adere animo or animis *to let one's courage fail, to despair; causa or in judicio, to lose one's suit; in aliquem, to meet any one, to be exposed to any one, to be applicable to one, to suit any one; sub sensum aliquem, sub oculos, to be perceived, to be seen; in aliquid, to end in or with something.*

C anere aliqua re, *to play upon something, to play something; e. g. Cithara, tibiis, fidibus. Canere receptui, to sound a retreat.*

C edere loco, ex and de loco, *to leave a place; alicui aliqua re, to yield something to some one; alicui (in) aliqua re, to be inferior to one*

in something; nihil cedo alicui, I am in nothing inferior to some one.

Circumspicere aliquem, aliquid, *to look round for or after some one, something, to consider, to attend to some one, something; e. g. Comites, omnia.*

Cogitare aliquid, *to think of something, to reflect upon something; de aliqua re, to meditate upon something, to have something in the mind, especially future things; secum, to think with one's self, to muse; in locum, to design to travel to a place; e. g. Cogito Romain, in Italiam.*

Cognoscere aliquid, *'to make one's self acquainted with, to learn by examination, to inquire into, investigate something; aliquid ex aliquo, to learn something from one who relates it.*

Coire in aliquem locum, *to go together somewhere. So coitio.*

Collocare aliquid in aliquo loco, *to place something in something; e. g. In navi, in foro, Romae, at Rome; hic (not hue), here; beneficium apud aliquem, to show a kindness to one; alicui filiam, to give a daughter in marriage to one.*

Communicare aliquid cum aliquo, *to communicate something to some one, to make common with one; inter aliquos, to share among some, with some.*

Concilia re sibi amorem, benevolentiam ab aliquo or alicujus, *to gain the love of one; aliquem alicui, to join one with one; aliquos inter se, to join some together or with each other.*

Concurrere in aliquem locum, *to run together into some place; ad aliquem, to come together to one. So concursus, as hereafter confluere.*

Conferre aliquid in aliquem (aliquid), *to attribute something to some one, to bestow, to give; also ad aliquid, to bestow upon something; e. g. Curam ad philosophiam; inter se, impart to one another; cum aliqua re, to compare with something; se in fugam, to betake one's self to flight; se in locum, to go to a place; se ad locum, to turn one's self to something.*

Confluere in aliquem locum, *to flow together into a place; hence, where, quo; here, hue; there, eo.*

Conquiescere in aliqua re, *to find one's peace and satisfaction in something.*

Conscendere in aliquid or aliquid, *to mount something, to climb upon; ab aliquo loco, to embark at some place; e. g. There, inde, ab eo loco, where, unde; at Ephesus, ab Epheso or Epheso.*

Constare inter omnes or omnibus, *to be known to all; sibi, to be consistent with one's self; in aliqua re, to persevere in something, to remain true to, to rest upon something; alicui rei, or cum aliqua re, to agree with something; ex aliqua re, to consist of, to be composed of something.*

Consumere aliquid in aliqua re, *to employ something upon something, to spend in something.*

Contendere ab aliquo, *to ask one earnestly.*

Conterere tempus (etc.) in aliqua re, *to spend time upon (with, on) something.*

Convenire aliquem, *to visit some one; in aliquem, to suit or belong to one; in locum, to come together to a place; e. g. In forum, to the market; hence, where, quo, not ubi; there, eo, not ibi; in the same place, eodem, not ibidem; hoc convenit mihi, this is suitable*

for me; hoc convenit mihi cum aliquo, I agree with some one in this; hoc convenit inter eos, these agree in this. Also the substantive *conventus in aliquem locum.*

Convertere de (ex) aliqua lingua, to translate from a language; e. g. *De (ex) Graecis, from the Greek.*

Dare poenas alicui, to be punished by some one; dare poenas aliquis rei, to suffer punishment for something. *Luere, pendere, pendere, expendere, solvere, persolvere, suscipere, sustinere, are also used for dare.*

Defendere aliquem ab aliquo, to defend one from or against one. *Contra* is seldom used for *ab.* *So tueri ab aliquo.*

Defigere aliquid (e. g. oculos) in aliqua re, to direct, to fasten something upon something.

Desiderare aliquid ab aliquo, to miss something in some one.

Desilire de or ex aliquo loco, to leap down from some place.

Desistere de or ab aliqua re, also aliqua re, to desist from something.

Detrahere de aliqua re aliquid, or alicui aliquid, to draw something from something; de aliqua re, to diminish something, to disparage.

Deturpare aliquem ex aliqua re, to deprive one of something.

Deverttere ad (in) aliquem locum, to put up somewhere; e. g. *Ad (in) cauponam, at an inn;* *ad aliquem (not apud aliquem), with some one;* e. g. *Ad hospitem, with a host.* Hence *e o devertis,* he put up there; *quo dev., where he—.* *Deversari* is different from this, signifying *to be a guest somewhere;* *apud aliquem, in alicujus domo (domi alicujus).*

Disputare aliquid, to say something, to discuss, only with neuter pronouns and adjectives; e. g. *Haec, multa — disputo;* *disputo de aliqua re, to speak respecting something;* *in alicujus sententiam, to speak in defence of the opinion of some one;* *in nullam partem, for no party;* *in contrarias partes, in utramque partem, for and against.*

Dissentire cum and ab aliquo (not alicui), to be of a different opinion from some one, to dissent from; inter nos dissensimus, we differ from each other in opinion.

Dissidere as above dissentire.

Dubitare de aliqua re, to be in doubt about something; but, hoc illud, to doubt this, that.

Ducere aliquem in aliquibus or in numero aliquorum, to reckon one among certain persons.

Efficere aliquid in aliquo (not in aliquem), to do something to, (against) some one. Comp. *exercere.*

Erudire, in the general sense of to instruct,—with the ablative alone, wherein; e. g. *Artibus et disciplinis, Graecis Romanisque litteris, institutis et praeceptis.* But when it is merely of instruction in a single art or science, it has *in* with the ablative; e. g. *In jure civili.*

Excidit hoc ex ore, this falls from, escapes the mouth; but, hoc mihi excidit, this escapes me, I have forgotten this. So, *hoc excidit ex animo, the mind forgets this, this is forgotten.*

Exercere aliquid, to practise something; se (or exerceri) in aliqua re, or aliqua re, to exercise (employ) one's self with (in) something. Hence, *exercere crudelitatem, iracundiam, and the like, in aliquo, to practise cruelty on one.* Whether Cicero has said, in *aliquem* is to be doubted. Comp. *efficere and expromere.*

E x i r e in aliquem locum, *to go out somewhere, alight, land.* Comp. *concedere.*

E x o r diu m sumere ab aliqua re, *to begin with something.*

E x p rimere de aliqua lingua, *to translate from a language;* e. g. de Graecis, *from the Greek.*

E x p romere aliquid, *to bring forth something, to show;* aliquid in aliqua re, *to show something in (to) something.* Hence, as before, expr. crudelitatem in aliquo, *to show cruelty to some one.* Comp. *exercere.*

F ig ure aliquid in aliquam rem and in aliqua re, *to fasten, to hang something upon something.* So also, telum figere in aliquo, *to thrust a dagger into some one;* studium figere in aliqua re, *to bestow labor or pains on something, and so only in an intellectual sense.*

G igni ex aliquo (aliqua), *to be begotten, to be born of any one.* Comp. the concluding remark at the end.

G ratulari alicui aliquid or de aliqua re, *to congratulate one on account of something.*

I mpedire aliquem ab aliqua re, or alicujus rem, *to hinder one in something.*

I mprimere, inc idere, inscribere, insculpere aliquid in aliqua re, *to stamp, to engrave something upon something.* Seldom with *in* and the accusative.

I nc ipere ab aliqua re, *to begin with something;* hinc, inde, *with this;* unde, *with which, where.*

I ntercedi t aliquid (e. g. amicitia) mihi tecum or inter me et te, *I and you have something.*

I ntercludere aliquem (ab) aliqua re, and alicui aliquid, *to shut one up from something, to deprive one of something.*

I nvadere in aliquem, in locum, *to make an assault upon one, upon a place.* Cicero uses only this construction, other writers omit *in;* it occurs only once (Fam. XVI. 12, 2) with the dative, after the manner of the poets.

I nvehi in aliquem, *to inveigh against, to chide, to accuse.*

I nvolvere aliquid aliqua re, *to wrap, to envelope something in something;* e. g. Tenebris, *in darkness;* nubibus, *in clouds.*

L aborare aliqua re, and ex aliqua re, *to suffer, to be in pain, to be sick in something,* when a single diseased part is mentioned; e. g. (ex) capite, pedibus, renibus, alvo. Cicero uses *ex*, Celsus the ablative merely. So also *ex invidia, ex desiderio.* But aliqua re, when only the disease is mentioned; e. g. Morbo, febri. Celsus: *ex partu lab.*, where the active cause is named. Further, de aliquo, alicujus causa, *to be afflicted, to be troubled on account of something;* in aliqua re, *to employ one's self with something, to be employed with.*

L ic eri aliquid, *to bid for (upon) something.*

L ocare aliquid in aliquo loco, *to place in some place, to place upon something.* Comp. above, *collocare.*

L udere aliqua re, and aliquem rem, *to play something;* e. g. Ball, dice, pila (pilam), talis (talos).

M ereri de aliquo, de aliqua re, *to make one's self deserving from some one of something, to merit from.* So also the participle *meritus.* But *meritum* in or erga aliquem, not de aliquo, *kindness to some one.*

Nasci ex aliquo (aliqua) *to be born of some one.* Comp. §212, and the concluding remark.

Numerare in bonis, in malis, *to reckon among blessings, among evils.* So also, *in loco beneficii, as a favor.*

Occupatum esse in aliqua re, *to be employed with (in) something.*

Ordiri to begin. Comp. *incipere.*

Orius Ordiri.

Perferre ad aliquem aliquid, *to bring something to one, to deliver, to announce.*

Pertinere ad aliquem, *to reach, to extend to some one, to relate to, to concern some one, to have influence upon some one.* With an ablative as *eo, quo, to tend, to serve, to have for its object.*

Placare aliquem alicui, *to reconcile one with one.*

Ponere aliquid in aliqua re, *to put something upon (in) something, to bestow something upon something; aliquid loco alicujus,* *to consider something as (in the place of, for) something;* e. g. *Loco beneficii.* Farther, *ponere aliquid in laude,* and the like, *to consider something as praise; aliquid in malis ponere,* *to reckon something among evils.* Comp. *collocare.*

Praestare aliquid or aliquem, *to stand for something, to be good for one, to be surety for; e. g. Fratrem meum praesto, I am good for my brother, I am surely for him; se aliquem,* *to show one's self as —;* e. g. *Bonum, fortē civem.*

Procreari ex aliquo (aliqua), *as gigni above.*

Provocare aliquem, *to challenge, to summon some one; ad aliquem,* *to appeal to some one.* Comp. *appellare.*

Purgare aliquem de aliqua re, *to excuse one on account of something; alicui,* *to some one; e. g. Te mihi de Sempronio purgas, you excuse yourself to me on account of S.*

Recidere ad aliquem, *to come back upon one, to recoil, to relapse; in aliquem,* *to fall upon one.*

Recipere in aliquem locum, *to receive, to harbor in a place; e. g. In castra, in civitatem;* with *domus,* merely *domum;* also *aliquo loco without in;* e. g. *Urbibus, tectis, sedibus.*

Referre aliquem in aliquos or in numerum aliquorum, *to reckon, to number one among some; aliquid (animum, oculos) ad aliquid,* *to direct something to something, to throw to, to refer to; ad aliquem de aliqua re, or aliquid,* *to ask some one respecting something, to propose something to some one for his consideration; ex and ab aliquo victoriam, to obtain a victory over some one.*

Reponere as ponere; *repon. aliquem in aliquos, or in numerum aliquorum,* *to reckon one among some, to rank among.*

Reportare ab or ex aliquo victoriam, *to obtain a victory over some one.*

Respicere ad aliquid (aliquem), *to look back to something (some one); aliquem (aliquid),* *to have a regard for one (something), to consider.*

Sumere supplicium de aliquo, *to inflict punishment upon one.*

Supersedere aliquarē, *to be released from, to be spared something.*

Triumphare de or ex aliquo, *to triumph over one.* So, *victoriam ferre ex aliquo.*

Tueri and tutari aliquem ab aliquo, *to defend one against one.*

Valere in aliquem (aliquid), *to have reference to something, to concern some one (something), to relate to one (something)*; e. g. *Haec res in omnes homines valet.*

Versari in aliqua re, *to be employed with something.*

Vindicare aliquid, *to appropriate something to one's self, to claim;* with and without *sibi*, or more seldom *ad se*; *ab aliqua re*, *to free from something;* in aliquem, *to punish some one.*

Remark. The verbs *nasci*, *gigni* and the like, are usually followed by *ex*, or more seldom by *a*, often by the ablative merely. In the sense of *to be descended from*, especially as participles, they generally take merely the ablative; e. g. *Tantalo prognatus*, *Peleope natus*, *summo loco natus*, *parentibus nati sunt humilibus.*

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN SOME WORDS.

546. There are very many words in Latin, which we, by using the same words to translate them, consider synonymous, and hence, in writing, often confound them with each other. Such words belong to all the different parts of speech, viz.—Substantives; e. g. *Mos*, *consuetudo*, *ritus*, *custom*, *usage*; *scelus*, *maleficium*, *flagitium*, *facinus*, *base or wicked deed*; Adjectives; e. g. *Ingens*, *magnus*, *great*; Pronouns, *hic*, *iste*, *ille*, *is*, *he*, *this*; Verbs, *amare*, *diligere*, *to love*; *putare*, *credere*, *censere*, *opinari*, etc., *to think*; *consequi*, *assequi*, *adipisci*, *nancisci*, *impetrare*, etc., *to obtain*; Adverbs, *certe*, *certo*, *certainly*; *fere*, *paene*, *almost*; Conjunctions, *quia*, *quoniam*, *quod*, *because*; *itaque*, *igitur*, *ergo*, *therefore*. And so there are many English words, which may be expressed by several Latin words, which yet differ more or less from each other. Such words are called *synonymes*. Good Latin composition depends upon the right use of these,—as in every language, the confounding of synonymous words is to be avoided.

Only some few which occur most frequently, will be mentioned here, and the distinction between them pointed out.

547. (1) *More* is expressed by *magis* and *plus*. *Magis* is used when the comparative meaning of the word *very* (*valde*, *magnopere*) is expressed, and the quality, *how*, *how greatly*, in its higher degree, is denoted; therefore it signifies, *in a higher, stronger degree*. Hence, so often, *eo magis*, *quo*

m agis, etiam magis, the more, still more. It is similar to *potius* (rather), except that *potius* excludes the one entirely, while *magis* prefers the one without depreciating the other.

Examples.

I attend in part to the present, but still more to the future. Those who fear, must be blamed the more. I rejoice far more at my act, than at thine. We hastened so much, that there could not be more haste. When I read thy last letter, I approved thy resolution still more. This excites my laughter more than my displeasure. — The positive adverb is here *valde, magnopere*, the superlative *maxime*.

Plus signifies *more* in relation to the question, *how much?* when *more* is the Nom. or Acc. or adverb of the comparative of *much*. Hence it denotes *greatness, multitude, superiority*, consequently in a *greater number or quantity*. *Amplius* is similar to it, which sometimes signifies *still further*, and sometimes, like *plus*, is used to denote number.

Examples.

So much and yet more is he indebted to me. They gave him more than they wished. These prevail more by wealth, power and weapons. At that time Bibulus did not oftener depart from the gate, than when at Rome from his house. He is owing more than a thousand dollars. The positive adverb is here *multum*, the superlative *plurimum*.

Sometimes we find both in single phrases. Thus it is said: *magis te amo, magis te diligo*; but also, *plus te amo, plus te diligo*; just as it is said: *valde te amo, valde te diligo*, and *multum te amo, multum te diligo*.

548. (2) If not, unless, si non and nisi.

Si non is used, when the emphasis lies upon *not* (*non*), so that either the whole sentence or a single word in contrast with another sentence or word, is to be negated. Hence it is used: (1) after another preceding affirmative condition, which *yet* is sometimes wanting, and must then be supplied in thought; (2) where it is the same as *perhaps*, and consequently one assertion outweighs the other; (3) where such a limitation as *but yet* occurs, and *if not* contains the idea of *yet, at least*; here *si minus* also is used; and (4) when two words are contrasted with each other. Such an antithetic sentence must sometimes be understood, when it is omitted. So, also,

after *mirari*; e. g. *Do not wonder, if it is not fit, si non* convenit. In the second clause, without a verb, *if (but) not* is expressed by *si* or *sin minus*, *sin aliter*, *si contra*, but not by *si non*.

Examples.

If any one breathes, he lives; if he does not breathe, he is dead. If this was not lawful, a mistake has been committed. This is a great orator, perhaps (if not) the greatest. Take all your forces with you, but if not, yet (at least) as many as possible. If we are not enticed by virtue itself, but by some advantage, then—. If we cannot equal a great orator, we can at least imitate him.

Nisi is used, when the emphasis does not fall upon *not* (*non*), but upon *si*. Hence it is used in all negative conditional clauses considered merely as possible. In supplementary subordinate remarks, *unless perhaps* is always expressed by *nisi* or *nisi forte*.

Examples.

These men would not have been chosen, if they had not then been the first. Marcellus would assist in this conversation, if he were not absent. All this has no power, unless bravery is provoked by anger. The memory is impaired, if it is not used. Unless I am wholly deceived, Pompey is abandoned by all.

Remark. When, however, in such sentences, the speaker gives the emphasis to the *not*, then *si non* can also stand for *nisi*.

549. (3) *The rest* is expressed by *ceteri* and *reliqui*. The first occurs very rarely in the singular; indeed, the masculine *ceterus* never occurs in the nominative, although often in other cases, *cetera* and *ceterum* only occasionally, the feminine frequently, especially in Livy. On the contrary, Cicero always uses *reliquus*, *a*, *um*, instead of it. He connects *reliquus* with singular substantives, and then it signifies *remaining*, *what remains*, *is left*, and signifies *the rest*, only in the neuter gender; e. g. *Reliqua conjutorum manus*; *reliqua supellex*, *reliqua vita agitur sub terra*; *animus si est corpus, interibit cum reliquo corpore*; *reliquum (venenum) ejecit e poculo*. With respect to time, it means *future*, *omne reliquum tempus*.

The plurals *reliqui* and *ceteri*, resemble each other so nearly

in signification, that one can often be put for the other, at least *ceteri* for *reliqui*.

Yet *reliqui* is generally used, when it signifies *those still remaining*; *ceteri* signifies, *the others, others of the kind*. When a numeral stands in connection, or has preceded, *reliqui* is used, and denotes the part still *wanting*; and thus *reliqui* denotes the *remaining parts* of a whole specified in part; e. g. *Quatuor corpora — terrena et humida — reliqua e duea partes. Prima illa res ad meum officium pertinet, duas autem reliquas vobis pop. Romanus imposuit.*

Examples of reliqui.

He alone possessed all virtues in a higher degree, than all other commanders have possessed them. I will inform the senate respecting the arrangement of the other affairs. The minds of the rest can be instructed. Three estates were delivered up to Capito; all the rest of the goods, this Roscius took possession of. He gave away not a little, the rest he sold. Whoever has easily comprehended a little, will as easily comprehend the rest. I follow Plato and the rest of the Socratics. Grief and the other maladies of the soul have a remedy. They have only labored on the head, the rest of the body they have left incomplete.

Examples of ceteri.

As others are wont to be named from their fathers, so he must be named from his son. What have those boasters better, with which to meet these two great evils? or do Epicurus and the other (*reliqui*) philosophers seem inadequately furnished against other supposed evils? To the other great advantages, this also is added. Pompey the Great has waged more wars than others have read of. Why do we not intrust this war also to the same, to whom the other wars have been intrusted? Take care for your life, ye judges, and for that of the other citizens. I do not buy my grain dearer than others.

550. (4) *Especially* is expressed by *in primis, praecipue, potissimum, maxime, plurimum* and *praesertim*.

Only the last differs so perceptibly from the rest, that none of them can supply its place; the others differ but little, and of these *maxime* is most used.

(a) *In primis* (*imprimis*), signifying properly *among the first*, strengthens, in the highest degree, an adjective or verb, and so qualifies an object, that it is ranked among the first, especially with reference to single things.

Examples.

Polybius especially is sufficient authority. Philodamus was especially rich (the richest) among his fellow-citizens. The writings of these men are especially distinguished (the most distinguished) in the Asiatic style. It is that, of which we especially treat. We love him especially, and hold him dear. M. Brutus was especially (very intimately) acquainted with the civil law. He is distinguished in all the liberal arts, especially in poetry.

(β) *P r a e c i p u e* also strengthens, for the most part, verbs and adjectives, distinguishes *single persons* or *things* above others, and attributes something to them *preeminently* or as *peculiar*.

Examples.

Precision must be peculiarly honored by us. The inhabitants of Vicetia especially esteem M. Brutus. You have nothing special to fear. Pompey arrogated nothing especially to himself. I have been especially employed in defending him. White is a color especially proper for the deity. I ask you especially for this one thing. Who will say, that nothing has been specially given to man by nature? I do not now speak particularly of the consular men. Eloquence has always preëminently flourished among every free people, and especially (*maxime*) in peaceful states.

(γ) *P o t i s s i m u m* as superlative of *potius, rather*, contains the idea of *above all*, and is chiefly used, where a *choice among many* is spoken of.

Examples.

The Roman people chose you in preference to all others among the consular men. I was reflecting upon what I should especially write to you. The soothsayers are wont to speak especially of this holy place. One of this family appeared, especially that blind one. Against you especially has he directed his already enfeebled power.

(δ) *M a x i m e* and *p l u r i m u m*; the former, as the superlative of *magis*, contains the idea of *magis quam, plurimum*, as superlative of *plus*, the idea of *plus quam*. Hence, wherever *magis* is appropriately used in the comparative, there *maxime* is used; and wherever *plus* is appropriate, there *plurimum* is used. The former occurs more frequently, and is strengthened by *quam* or *vel*.

Examples.

He adopts the custom of the philosophers, especially of those, who are wont to speak on every subject, for and against. In the greatest pain, hope especially consoles me. I have especially used thy advice. Let him learn history, especially that of our state. I write this to you on this account especially, that —. I had indeed heard this from others, but I learned it especially from my brother.

(e) *Praesertim* is used only with emphatic accessory clauses, which are designed to make the rest of the assertion more prominent, and stands sometimes in connection with *quum*, *quod*, *si*, sometimes with a participle or abridged sentence, provided that one of those conjunctions is understood.

Praecipue and *imprimis* never stand before *si*, when it renders the condition emphatic.

Examples.

An orator, especially in our state, must have at his command every elegance of speech. You must use every effort, especially when these hear. This reputation of wisdom does not please me, especially since it is unfounded. You are in fault, especially because you think it was done by me.

(5) *Omnis*, *totus*, *cunctus*, *universus*. *Omnis* = $\pi\alpha\eta\varsigma$, may be said in general of all the individuals, of all the species of a genus, and of all the parts of a thing, whether these objects be considered as united or dispersed; e. g. *Omnis exercitus*, *omnes milites*, *omnis clamor*, *omnes homines*. *Totus* = $\delta\lambda\omega\varsigma$, only signifies a whole, in reference to all its parts; e. g. *Totae aedes*, *totus exercitus*. We do not say *omnis orbis*, but *totus orbis*. *Cunctus* = $\alpha\pi\tau\alpha\varsigma$ includes the assemblage of all the individuals, or of all the species, considered as united together; e. g. *Cuncta gens*, *cuncta civitas*. *Cuncti simul ore fremebant Dardanidae*. Had Virgil intended to say that all the Trojans that were in the world had such or such a sentiment, he should have said *omnes*, and not *cuncti*. *Universus* = $\sigma\pi\mu\pi\alpha\varsigma$ rises above the idea of *cunctus*; it not only signifies all the objects united,

but also all without exception, all at once and together. *Cuncti clamare coeperunt* signifies that all those who composed, for example, an assembly of the people, cried out. *Universi clamare coeperunt* adds to the above idea; that all, without any exception, cried out at once, as it were but one cry. Phoedrus, in the tale of Princeps Tybicen, says, *Ut vero cuneis res patuit omnibus, as soon as it was known in all parts of the amphitheatre, either to all at once, or to one after the other;* Princeps ab universis capite est protrusus foras, *all at once cried out that he should be driven out of the place.* *Omnis* is opposed to *nullus*, or to *pauci*; *totus* to *par*; *cuncti* to *scjuncti*; *universi* to *singuli*. In many instances these four words may be used the one instead of the other, when we wish to express the whole of a thing in reference to its different parts. It is true *totus* cannot have the extensive signification of *omnis*; but *omnis* includes that of *totus*. In not considering the union or dispersion of the parts, we may say with propriety, *obviam se effudit omnis civitas*, in the sense of Horace: *dicemus, io, triumphe, civitas omnis.* *Totu* *civitas, cuncta civitas, universa civitas se obviam Caesari effudit.* Poets sometimes use these words indiscriminately.—*Dumesnil's Latin Synonyms.*

(η) *Atque, ac, et, que.* *Atque* and *ac* do not differ in signification. Therefore, if they connect single words, the ideas which they express must be of the same kind. And, in the first place, these ideas are such, that the second enhances or augments the first. *Interim omnes servi* (not only) *atque* (but also) *liberi.* Nep. Them. 6. Therefore *atque etiam, atque adeo.* Liv. XLIV, 22. In *omnibus circulis atque etiam, si diis placet, in convivis sunt, qui exercitum in Macedoniam ducant.* Cic. Rosc. Amer. 35. *Ea, si prodierit, atque adeo quum prodierit, scio enim proditum esse audiet.*

In the second place, these ideas can be such, that the last is a more definite and exact explanation of the first; yet always such an explanation, that the addition appears as an ex-

pansion of what precedes. *Vestros portus atque (and moreover, and indeed, and also) eos portus, quibus vitam et spiritum ducitis, in praedonum suisse potestate scitis.* Cic. Manil. 12. *Semper se interposuit, atque ita, uti usuram ab iis nunquam acceperit.* Nep. Att. 2. But these particles connect whole sentences also, when the latter sentence augments, more fully explains and continues what precedes = *and, and then, and therefore, and yet.* *Atque ut omnes intelligent, me Lucullo tantum laudis impertire, quantum ei debeatur, dico, etc.* Cic. Manil. 8. *His rebus in causa judicioque patens factis, quis est, qui illum absolvi potuisse arbitraretur?* *Atque haec parva sunt: cognoscite majora.* Id. Cluent. 8. *Ingeram mala multa: atque, aliquis dicat, nil promoveris.* Ter. Andr. IV, I, 16.

*Et** connects things which are different from one another, and which do not belong together by nature or by any internal connection, but are both of the like substances, which are connected only for some present purpose. Hence it is used in inscriptions: *Cervus et Leo.* *Que* connects things, which seem, in some way, to be united by a natural and internal connection or by a connection arising from some relation. But here the things connected are not of the same substance; what follows is only an accident, naturally as it were, depending on what precedes. Hence *que* generally has the force of, *and accordingly, and therefore, and also.* *Darius classem quingentarum navium comparavit, eique Datim praefecit et Artaphernem.* Nep. Milt. 4. *Et*, because *Dataenes* and *Artaphernes* are different and are connected only for the present; *eique*, because *comparare classem* and *praeficere classi* naturally belong together. Therefore so often

* *Et* may also be said to connect words or sentences equally important; e. g. *Socrates et Plato sapientissimi fuerunt; que annexes something to what precedes; e. g. Senatus populus que Romanus decrevit.* Here the Senate and people are not considered of equal authority or importance, since they do not constitute an organized body; only the Senate *decrees, and the people approve.*

conjuges liberique; and, therefore, generally *quique*, not *et qui*, because the addition is considered as naturally connected with what precedes. *Se suaque alienis crediderunt. Caes. B. G. VI, 31. Mulieres quique per aetatem ad pugnam inutiles erant. Ibid. II, 16.*—*Schmalfeld's Latin Synonyms.*

(3) *Quis?* (masc. and fem.) *quid?* as a substantive, *who?* *what?* *Qui, quae, quod*, as an adjective, *which?*—*Quis, quid* asks for the *object itself*, without reference to any *quality* which belongs to it. When *quis* is joined with a substantive, the latter is to be considered as in apposition with the former. Then only the *object itself* (person or thing) is inquired for, and the quality of the object is known to the speaker; e. g. *Quis philosophus praeclarum illam sententiam pronuntiavit?* Here the speaker wishes to know merely the name of the philosopher. But when it is said: *Qui philosophus*—pronuntiavit? the speaker at the same time wishes to know *what kind* of a philosopher he is who has expressed the noble sentiment, e. g. of what school. Moreover, the adjective *qui* is used *substantively*, when the quality of the object is inquired for, but the object itself is supposed to be already known; e. g. *Themistocles domino navis, qui sit, aperuit, Them. informed the master of the ship, who he was; he did not tell him his name merely, but also how great a man he was.*—*Kühner.* See also, §§102, 333 (6).

(4) *A u t, v e l, v e, s i v e.* *Aut* is used when things or ideas are disjoined, one of which *necessarily* excludes the other. This exclusion is either *actual*, so that the words or members contradict each other, and cannot be conceived at the same time; e. g. *Quicquid enunciatur, aut verum est, aut falsum. Omne corpus aut aqua, aut aer, aut ignis, aut terra est, aut id quod est concretum ex his, aut ex aliqua parte eorum;* or it is *represented* as necessary, for the purpose of emphatic distinction; e. g. Cicero says: *Beauty of expression, which is consistent with the use of common words, depends upon this, that such words, aut op-*

time sonant, aut rem maxime explanant. He puts two cases here, as excluding one another, although it is conceivable, that both should be true of one and the same word. So again he says: *The reasons for leaving office are various*, nam aut inimicitias, aut laborem, aut sumptus suscipere nolunt, aut, etc. *Aut* often introduces ideas of *less* or *greater* extent, that exclude the foregoing,—where we can translate *or at least, or much more*; e. g. Eripe mihi hunc dolorem, aut minus saltem. Non multum aut nihil omnino Graecis ceditur.

Vel represents the exclusion as *arbitrary* or *assumed*, not like *aut*, as *actual* and *essential*. It is derived from *velle*, and therefore contains the idea of choice, as *one chooses*, and denotes a separation depending upon the will or view of the speaker; e. g. Sero a Romanis poetae vel cogniti, vel recepti sunt. It is *conceivable* that both have taken place; this would be positively *asserted*, if *et—et* were used; with *aut* only *one* of the two must have happened.—With *vel* something else besides what is named, is admissible, while with *aut* everything else not named is excluded. E. g. Hanc tu mihi vel vi, vel clam, vel precario fac tradas, either by violence, or craft, or entreaty, in any way you can, without excluding a fourth; *aut* would mean, in no other way than one of the three named. Hence, expressions or ideas, which are related or synonymous, are disjoined by *vel*, to indicate that either may be taken; e. g. Mens mundi vel prudentia vel providentia appellari recte potest. If the first *vel* is omitted, the separation is not so emphatic. *Vel* then expresses a correction or amendment of what precedes, in the sense of *or better*, *or rather*, and therefore is often joined with *dicam, potius, etiam*; e. g. Homo minime malus, vel potius optimus. Laudanda est, vel etiam amanda. Sed stuporem hominis, vel dicam pecudis. A virtute profectum, vel in ipsa virtute positum. But if the second clause is used merely to explain

the first, so that it could stand in its place, *aut* is employed. E. g. *Experti, quid efficere, aut quo progredi possent.*

Ve doubled is used only by the poets. Singly it expresses the same kind of separation as *vel*, though as an enclitic with less emphasis; but it disjoins only words, and is almost exclusively used in such sentences as begin with a conjunction, the relative pronoun or an interrogative, or serves to indicate a closer connection between two members of a sentence, which are in common contrasted with a third. With numerals it means *or at most*. E. g. *Si florem, acerbamve piram, aliudve decerpseris. Esse ea dico, quae cerni tangive possunt. Quid est aliud mali damnive?* Qui consules praetoresve aut legati gesserunt, where consuls and praetors are jointly contrasted with lieutenants. *Ter quaterve, three or at most four.*

Sive—sive is used, when the speaker wishes to indicate, that he is uncertain which of two statements is true = whether this or that, I cannot or will not decide. It may often be resolved into *vel si*, and therefore differs from *vel*, in that it can form a subordinate sentence with the mere verb, but this may be so blended with the main sentence, as not to be recognized as a separate clause. *Sive* used alone, commonly refers to a preceding *si*, and then means *or if*; in the sense of *or perhaps, or better*, to amend what precedes or connect synonymous expressions, *sive* is indeed used by later Latin writers, but Cicero almost exclusively employs *vel*. E. g. *Consul, sive praesentiam ejus timens, sive ira commotus, orationem habuit. Leges, quas sive Minos sive Jupiter sanxit.*

Remark.

Caes. B. G. 12. says: *Sive casu, sive consilio deorum, ea civitas poenas persolvit.* Here he indicates that he does not know which of the two is true. If *aut—aut* were used, the meaning would be, that Caesar judged that the punishment *must necessarily* proceed, either from accident or from the divine decree. *Vel—vel* would leave to the reader, which

he chooses to believe, and would merely give the conditions, under which the punishment *might be* possible.

(x) **Sed**, **at**, **autem**, **verum**, **vero**. **Sed** is derived from the particle *se*, which denotes *separation*. It therefore properly serves to *separate* or *set apart* what is *different*. Hence it stands in such sentences as denote a *restriction*, *correction* or *more exact definition* of what precedes; e. g. *Tyrannus fuit appellatus, sed justus*. Here *sed* corrects the idea, that would naturally arise from the word *tyrannus*, and defines the man's character more precisely. *Magnus homo, sed varius in omni genere vitae fuit*. Here it restricts the first assertion. This sense it preserves also after *quidem* (*it is true, indeed*), after negations, and after *non modo*, etc.; e. g. *Plura quidem exempla proferre possemus, sed modus adhibendus est*. *Quidem* concedes, while *sed* restricts. *Otii fructus est non contentio animi, sed relaxatio*. Here *sed* corrects by distinguishing and separating *rel.* from *cont.* Hence it happens, that *sed* is so often used, to indicate, that one does not wish to pursue a subject farther, either for the purpose of returning from a digression and resuming a previous topic, or of passing to a new one, or of breaking off altogether; e. g. *Sed illuc revertor. Ego sane a Quinto dissentio; sed ea, quae restant, audiamus*.

At serves to *oppose* and *contrast*. It is therefore used, when to one fact or idea admitted as true or valid, another is opposed as equally true; e. g. *Fecit idem Themistocles. At idem non fecit Pericles*. *Non placet Antonio consulatus meus, at placuit Servilio*. *Brevis a natura nobis vita data est, at memoria bene redditae vitae sempiterna*; i. e. I admit that life is brief, but *set over against* this, that the remembrance of a well spent life is eternal. This concession is sometimes formally expressed by a clause with *si*, *etiamsi* or *quamvis*, in which case *at* is often joined with *certe*, *vero* or *tamen*, and rendered *yet*. With the same idea of opposition, *at* is used to introduce *objec-*

tions, excuses, warnings or admonitions, sudden and lively transitions; e. g. Multo magis orator praestat imperatoribus. At prodest plus imperator, but it is replied or objected, that, etc. Id quum omnibus mirum videretur, At, inquit, merito illud facio, where at justifies what has preceded. At videte hominis intolerabilem audaciam. So with prayers or imprecations, and commands, which are uttered in opposition to something going before. At tu Pater deum hominumque, hinc saltem arce hostes. Finally, it is frequent in answers, in which a question is thrown back as unnecessary, or if it contains an objection, this is shown to be groundless; e. g. Quid porro querendum est? Factumne sit? At constat. A quo? At patet, shall it be asked whether it was done? But that is granted. By whom? But that is clear. Quaestorem Coelium praeposui provinciae. Puerum? inquires. (True). At quaestorem, at nobilem adolescentem. At then contrasts opposites, sed separates what is different.

A utem is allied to the Greek *αὐτὸν, αὐτείς, again, on the other hand, on the contrary, moreover.* It is the weakest of all the adversative particles, and accordingly serves most commonly to denote a transition from one topic to another, at the same time not, like sed, distinguishing them emphatically for the sake of separation, but rather, merely *continuing* the train of remark. It thus approaches more nearly to the copulatives, and may sometimes be translated by *and, and moreover, and on the other hand.* Hence it is used to compare subjects having different predicates; e. g. Versutos eos appello, quorum celeriter mens versatur, callidos autem, quorum animus usu concalluit, while on the other hand I call those callidos; or to take out from what precedes a single idea for farther definition, and thus continue the train of thought in another aspect; e. g. Pater, prout ipse amabat litteras, filium eruditivit. Erat autem in puerō, etc., now there was in the youth. Multi obtrectatores multa finxerunt. Nihil est autem tam volucre, quam maledictum, i. e.

Many slanders were invented; now there is nothing so swift as slander. Hence it is frequent in explanations with *est, sunt*, likewise, when a word or idea is taken out from the previous connection, and questioned with an expression of surprise or displeasure; e. g. *Foedera ac leges (erant autem eae duodecim tabulae et quaedam regiae leges)*, etc. *Meum est, scire et curare, quid in republica fiat: fiat autem?* (*happens, do I say?*) *Immo vero etiam quid futurum sit.* So in the minor premise of a syllogism; e. g. *If wisdom is to be sought, fully is to be shunned; now wisdom is to be sought; therefore, etc., sapientia autem petenda.*

V erum, properly, *it is true*, always preserves this meaning more or less obliterated, and serves to define how or how far *with truth*, what precedes is to be understood. It has, at bottom, the sense of *sed*, but with the additional idea of an *assurance*, and therefore denotes a *separation* from something, with an *assurance* that it ought to be separated or distinguished, often = *but the truth is*. Thus it strengthens the meaning of *sed*, as *vero* does that of *autem*. Hence, generally, it restricts or corrects a previous statement, while at the same time it represents this restriction or correction as a *true* and *safe* one; e. g. *Hermagorae peccatum reprehendendum videtur, verum brevi, deserves to be censured, but certainly with mildness.* *Non quid nobis utile, verum quid oratori necessarium, quaerimus*, not what is useful to us, *but surely*, what is needful to the orator. *Non ego dicebam serio, ut illam illi dares, verum ut simulares*, i. e. my true meaning was. So when joined with *tamen*; e. g. *It is an easy matter to raise a laugh, but certainly notwithstanding, I have often seen much effected in causes by pleasantry, veruntamen multum — vidi.*

Vero, originally *in truth*, is properly used in replying with emphasis and assurance; as, *ego vero, maxime, minime vero.* This meaning of *truly*, it retains with many particles and with negatives; as, *enim vero, at or verum enim vero, jam vero, neque vero.* When it forms a transition, it concedes what has gone before, and adds something

more weighty and important, the truth of which is represented as confirmed by actual fact. Hence it is used in a climax, where it is often joined with *etiam*. Like *autem*, it commonly *continues* the train of thought, but adds a degree of assurance, precisely as *verum* does to *sed*. Hence it may often be rendered *and in truth, moreover in truth,* while *verum* is *but in truth*; e. g. *It was a great honor throughout all Greece, to be proclaimed victor at Olympia; and in truth, to appear upon the stage even, and exhibit before the people, was no disgrace to any one, in scenaque vero prodire.* Scimus musicen abesse a principis persona: saltare vero etiam in vitiis poni, *and indeed* dancing even was regarded as a vice. Quod bonum, id expectandum; quod autem exp., id certe approbandum; quod vero approbaris, id, etc., where *vero* rises above *autem*, and closes the climax. Itaque et dialectici et physici — utantur; geometrae vero, etc., indeed geometricians also.

CHOICE OF CERTAIN FORMS.

551. In the time of Cicero and the best writers, the orthography, the formation of declinable and conjugated words, and the forms of single words, according to their place in a sentence, differed much from what they were at a later period. Most of these, in order to imitate the best writers even in lesser points, must be retained; in others, the later usage is rather to be followed. This last would not allow us to write, *hos civis, has omnis urbis, homo magni ingenii, volt, vulnus, caussa, for hos cives, has omnes urbes, homo m. ingenii, vult, vulnus, causa.*

On the contrary, we should follow Cicero in writing, in the genitive plural of the second declension, *duumvirum, triumvirum, decemvirum, sestertium, denarium, talentum, numum, medimum, modium, jugerum, fabrum*, not with the ending *orum*, particularly in such designations of *office, money* and *measure*, especially when to these names of money and measure a numeral is joined, since otherwise they also

had the ending *orum*. The ablative singular of the comparative, as a uniform ending, has only *e*, not *i*; e. g. *majore*, *meliore*. When masculine, Cicero uses only *equester*, but *salubris*, not *saluber*; only *imbecillus*, not *imbecillis*; but *imberbis*, not *imberbus*.

In Greek words which he adopted, he chose almost exclusively the Latin ending, and therefore he censures himself, because he once said *Piræen* for *Piræum*. Hence, he would have formed *poeſis*, *mathesis* and the like in the genitive with the ending *is*, not *eos*, consequently *poeſis*, *mathesis*, as also subsequent writers generally did.

In regard to the personal endings of the verb it is to be noticed :

(a) The third person plural of the perfect indicative, in Cicero, usually ends in *erunt*, very seldom in *ere*, e. g. *scripserunt*, *restiterunt*. So in Caesar, who without hesitation, allows three or more such to follow one another. It is different in other writers.

(b) The second person singular passive has the double ending *re* and *ris*. But Cicero uses the first almost exclusively, except in the present indicative, where he but seldom uses the ending *re*, elsewhere he uses *ris*. Hence he says, usually, *videris*, *videb̄re*, *videb̄re*, *vidērē*, *videb̄ē*.

(c) In the perfects in *ivi*, Cicero for the most part retains the *v*, where two *i*'s would come together; he says *quaestivi*, *audiivi*, etc., not *quaesti*, *audti*; yet often *petii* from *peto*. But when *e* follows *i*, he generally omits the *v*; e. g. *arcessirunt* for *arcessiverunt*, *audieram* for *audiveram*. But he never uses *quaesiſſem*, *audiſſem*, *petiſſem*, etc., but only the contracted forms, *quaesiſſem*, *audiſſem*, *petiſſem*, *abiſſem* and the like.

On the contrary, in compound verbs of the perfect *ivi* (from the verb *eo*), he always omits the *v* and uses the double *i*; e. g. *abii*, *perii*, *transii*, except in *praeivi*. Yet where *s* is doubled, he uses only the contract form *abisſem*, *transiſſem*, *praeteriſſem*, etc.

The form of some words is changed, according as they stand before a vowel or consonant.

A and *e* are never permitted to stand before a vowel and an *h*, but only before a consonant; e. g. *a te*, *a me*, *a quo*, *a fortuna*, *e macello*, *e quibus*, *e continente*, not *a illo*, *e illo*, *a homine*, *e homine*. Before *t*, Cicero often uses *abs*, the stronger form, instead of *a*; hence so often *abs te*. He uses this *abs* but little before *q*, e. g. *abs quo*, more *a quo*; but also *ab*, e. g. *ab quaestore*. Cic. Inv. II, 29, 87.

Ab and *ex* must not only stand before every vowel and *h*, but they also stand before almost every consonant, and *ex* almost always before *s*; e. g. *ab illo*, *ab homine*, *ab justitia*, *ab Jove*, *ab negotio*, *ab se*, *ex eo*, *ex hoc*, *ex se*, *ex te*, *ex quo*, *ex Latinis*, *ex miseria*, *ex suspicione*, *ex parte*. Yet before *f* and *m*, *ab* seems not to be used, nor *ex* before *f*, and so perhaps before other consonants.

In Cicero and the other best writers, *ac* does not stand before a vowel or an *h*, but only before consonants, though not before *x*; e. g. *ac te*, *ac sumptus*, *ac celebrat*, *ac dissolutus*, *ac portus*; not *ac ille*, *ac ego*, *ac hospes*, *ac Xerxes*. But other writers, to the injury of the euphony, use *ac* before a vowel.

Atque stands not only before a vowel and *h*, but also before every consonant, e. g. *atque insula*, *atque amens*, *atque homines*, *atque superat*, *atque tu*, *atque ceteri*.

So with *aeque ac* and *aeque atque*; *simul ac* and *simul atque*; e. g. *aeque ac tu*, *aeque atque ego*; *simul ac renuntiatur*, *simul atque agnoscit*, *simul atque audivit*, not *aeque ac ego*, *aeque ac ille*, *simul ac audivit*, *simul ac eum vidit*. And so many others which belong here, might be quoted.

BREVITY AND COPIOUSNESS OF EXPRESSION.

552. Many of the Latin usages in respect to this, may be found collected in the larger grammars. It would be tedious

to mention them all. The writings of Cicero, when read with care, will afford the best information on this point. Only some few will here be noticed.

(1) When an intermediate sentence, especially a relative one, has a verb in common with its principal sentence, the Latins usually omit this in the intermediate sentence. The English also sometimes omits it; e. g. *You have not been assisted by those, by whom you ought to have been*, *a quibus debuisti*. *I will use the form of conclusion which I am wont to use, qua soleo*. *You do not see that, which we see, quae nos*. *They do what they have been commanded to do, quod jussi sunt*. *We build upon hope, upon which you command us to build, quia jubes*; and so very often.

Est or *sunt* is almost wholly omitted in forcible questions, in proverbial and sententious phrases.

Quae res igitur gesta unquam in bello tanta? qui triumphus conferendum? *Nihil enim laudabilius, nihil magno et praeclaro viro dignus placabilitate.* *Quid alius novi?* *Plena terroris et timoris omnia.* *Quo quis versutior et callidior, hoc invisor et suspectior.*

(3) When two ideas opposite to each other, which the English connects by *and* or *or*, follow one another, the Latin generally omits *et* and *aut*, in order to make the ideas more striking.

Velint, nolint. Irent, redirent. Diem, noctem. Multos dies, noctes. Hostes, cives. Maxima, minima. Prima, postera. Sciam, neciam. Aperte, tecte. Ventis, remis — properavi.

(4) The Latins were particularly fond of brief expressions in letters of friendship and in conversation.

Cogito Romam. Quid plura? Coram, opinor, reliqua. Sed haec coram. Dionysio plurimam salutem. Beneventi cogitabam hodie. Cicerones nostros Deiotarus filius secum in regnum. Te ipsum cupio. Tum ille — (inquit omitted). Nam quum dissolutus filius (dixisset omitted). Heu me miserum! tum severus pater (respondit omitted). Dummodo — Sed et haec et multa alia eoram (loqui) brevi tempore licebit.

(5) For the purpose of distinguishing particularly a person or thing, where two contrasted adjectives or verbs belonging to that person, are mentioned with *indeed — but*, the pronoun

ego, tu or ille referring to that person, is placed before the word *quidem*.

Examples.

Cleon was at those times indeed a troublesome citizen, but yet an eloquent man, Cleon temporibus illis turbulentus ille quidem civis, sed tamen eloquens fuit. *Young Demetrius followed them, indeed the most learned among all, but —,* Demetrius successit eis adolescens, eruditissimus ille quidem omnium, sed —. *Domitius spake indeed without any art, but yet with much freedom, Domitius nulla ille quidem arte, sed multa tamen cum libertate dicebat. You do not indeed hate our Epicurus, but certainly you do not love him,* Epicurum nostrum non tu quidem odisti, sed certe non probas.

To the full or periphrastic expression belongs the construction mentioned above § (541. d.), viz. *facere, ut*, for the simple verb following; and so in the negative sense, *non committere, ut*, e. g. *We must not obey these, non est committendum, ut iis pareamus.* *I will give you no cause to refuse, non committam, ut tibi causam aliquam dem recusandi.* *You will not, in future, be able to censure me on account of negligence, non committam posthac, ut me accusare — possis.*

PERIODS.

553. A period is a sentence which is enlarged by an intermediate sentence, or it is a principal sentence with an introductory one.

Tu pro tua prudentia, quid optimum factum sit, videbis. Quod si ipsi haec neque attingere, neque sensu nostro gustare possemus, tamen ea mirari deberemus.

554. Especially are these latter sentences, which are composed of an introductory and concluding member, called periods. When these sentences are again enlarged by others, and especially when these new ones are interwoven with the former ones, then they are called compound periods.

So the following period in Cic. pro Sull. 32, 42: *Ut ego, quid de me populus R. existimaret, quia severus in improbos fueram, laboravi, et, quae prima innocentis mihi defensio est obliterata, suscepit; sic vos severitatem judiciorum, quae per hos menses in homines audacissimos facta est, lenitate ac misericordia mitigate.*

So also the following beautiful period in Cic. Cat. I, 13: *Ut saepe homines aegri morbo gravi, quum aestu febris jactantur, si aquam gelidam biberint, primo relevari videntur, deinde multo gravius vehe-*

mentiusque afflictantur; sic hic morbus, qui est in republica, relevatus istius poena, vehementius reliquis vivis ingravescat.

In both these periods, we find an introductory and concluding sentence, and in both, there are other explanatory intermediate clauses inserted. Thus the attention of the mind is required till the close, because in such compound periods, the subject is separated from its predicate by intermediate clauses. On this account, the reader and hearer are made attentive to what is said of the preceding subject of the introductory and concluding sentence. This attention is the more requisite, if a long, complicated sentence precedes, which is only introductory to the following principal sentence.

555. Therefore a period consists of a principal sentence in connection with another, which is either placed within the principal sentence, or, as an introductory sentence, is placed before it.

Periods receive different names according to the difference of the particle in the sentence, which stands in connection with a principal sentence. The following are the principal periods:

(1) **Periōdus conditionalis**, which contains a conditional sentence.

Si ea, quae acciderunt, ita fers, ut audio, gratulari magis virtuti debo, quam consolari dolorem tuum.

(2) **Periōdus concessiva**, in which the principal sentence concedes something, although there may be something that would hinder the occurrence of the principal sentence. This is formed by the particles *etsi, etiamsi, quanquam, quamvis, licet*.

Quanquam gratiarum actionem a te non desiderabam, quum te re ipsa atque animo scirem esse gratissimum; tamen (fatendum est enim) fuit ea mihi perjucunda.

(3) **Periōdus causalis**, in which the cause of another occurrence is stated. It is formed by *quia, quoniam, quod, quando, quum*.

Quum et mihi conscientius essem, quanti te facerem, et tuam erga me

benevolentiam expertus essem, non dubitavi a te petere, quod mihi petendum esset.

(4) **Periodus comparativa**, in which the action of the principal sentence is compared with something else. It is formed by *ut*, or *quemadmodum* with *sic* or *ita* following.

Quemadmodum volucres videmus procreationis atque utilitatis sua causa fingere et construere nidos, easdem autem, quum aliquid effecerint, levandi laboris sui causa passim atque libere solutas opere volitare; sic nostri anfini forensibus negotiis defessi gestiunt ac voluntare cupiunt vacui cura atque labore.

(5) **Periodus consecutiva** or **temporalis**, in which a certain time, when the action of the principal sentence occurs, is stated. It is formed by a particle of time, as *postquam*, *quum*, *ut*, *ubi*, *simulac*, etc.

Quum ad te tuus quaestor, M. Varro proficeretur, commendatione egere eum non putabam. Quo ut veni, hostem ab Antiochia recessisse cognovi.

(6) **Periodus proportionalis**, in which similar proportions are expressed. This is formed by *quo — eo* (*hoc*); *quanto — tanto* with comparatives, or *ut — ita* with superlatives.

Quo quis versutior et callidior, hoc invisiior et suspectior, detrac-ta opinione probitatis.

(7) **Periodus circumscrip-tiva**, in which a substantive or circumstance, in reference to which some one gives his opinion, is expressed periphrastically by a sentence with *quod*.

Quod epistolam consciassam doles (respecting the tearing of the letter), noli laborare; salva est, domo petes, quum libebit.

Quod scire vis, qua omnes in te voluntate sint, difficile dictu est de singulis: this is expressed briefly, you wish to know what are the feelings of all; this is difficult.

(8) **Periodus copulativa**, in which both sentences are joined by connectives, affirmative or negative. It is formed by *et — et*; *cum — tum*; *tum — tum*; *non solum* (*modo*) — *sed etiam*; *neque — neque*, etc.

Et in Attilii negotio te amavi, et mehercule semper sic in animo habui, te in meo aere esse propter Lamiae nostri conjunctionem. Cum multae res in philosophia nequaquam satis adhuc explicatae sint, tum perdifficilis et perobscura quaestio est de natura deorum.

(9) **Periōdus modālis**, in which the quality or greatness of a person or thing is expressed periphrastically. It is formed by *qualis*, *quantus*, *ut*, etc.

*Res quae in admodum sit acta, vestrae litterae mihi declarant.
Quod cuiusmodi sit, satis intelligere non possum.*

And so there are still others, according to the nature of the sentences, but their names are not of much importance.

Such sentences are used not only as introductory to a principal sentence, but also as intermediate sentences both of principal and introductory ones.

556. We use in English also the common periods which consist of antecedent and principal sentences. Yet instead of these, we not only use single detached sentences, but in these introductory and principal sentences, we seldom insert others, according to the studied manner of the Latins, and when we do, they are generally shorter than the Latin periodic sentences.

Therefore, whoever wishes to form periods, at least skilfully, must not only make of two single unconnected sentences two connected ones, by means of conjunctions, but he must also convert prepositions with substantives, moreover substantives and adjectives into appropriate sentences, and insert these in a suitable manner in the principal and introductory sentences. The formation of new sentences depends upon the meaning contained in the words and in the whole connection.

The following examples will explain this, and may be of service in forming others.

Your letter is indeed in the highest degree pleasing to me; but yet it was still more pleasing to me, that you intrusted it to Plancus. This is a concessive period; *Although your letter is in the highest degree pleasing to me, yet it was much more—, Etsi mihi tue litterae jucundissimae sunt, tamen jucundius fuit, quod—.*

Mescinius often heard from me respecting our pleasant and strong connection with one another. This is a modal period: *Mescinius often heard from me, how pleasant and strong our connection with one another was, M. saepe ex me audivit, quam suavis esset inter nos, et quanta conjunctio.*

Undertake this for the sake of my honor; I ask you most earnestly. Instead of, *I ask most earnestly that you would—, Id ut honoris mei causa suscipias, vehementer te etiam atque etiam rogo.*

I associate with this man very intimately and cheerfully.—Instead of,

I associate with this man, as I do with no other, both more familiarly and cheerfully, hoc homine sic utor, ut nec familiarius ullus, nec libertius.

All things which have reason, surpass those which are destitute of it; and it cannot be said, that any among all things surpasses nature: Therefore, we must confess that there is reason in it. The following is the period enlarged: Quum omnia, quae rationem habent, praestent iis; quae sint rationis expertia, nefasque sit dicere, ullam rem prae-stare naturae omnium rerum: rationem inesse in ea confitendum est.

557. Thus, instead of the particle *indeed*, *although* is used; instead of *by* or *on account of*—*because* or *although*; instead of *in*—*when*; instead of *without*—*unless*. And so in many other cases. But it is not to be supposed, that only the same kind of particles can be used in every instance; everything depends rather upon the sense of the passage. The ideas that can be enlarged, are enlarged, and the sentences properly inserted. Therefore, in the periodic style, participles are seldom used, because they contract or abridge sentences; and hence Cicero, who writes mostly in periods, uses them much less than other writers. The following are some examples, in which the idea contained in *prepositions*, in *adverbs* and *adjectives* is enlarged.

In his tender youth, dum est tener.

My small authority, si quid auctoritatis in me est.

Therefore he esteems you, ita fit ut te diligat.

Under these circumstances, quae quum ita sint.

The rest of life, quod reliquum est vitae.

The opinion of others, quid alii sentiant.

Without doubt, non dubito quin.

On account of my connection with that order, pro necessitudine, quae mihi est cum illo ordine.

As I ought, pro eo, ac debedo.

According to my respect for you, pro eo, quanti te facio.

On account of his great refinement, quia magna est ejus humanitas, or quanta (quae) est ejus humanitas, or quanta (qua) est humanitate.

Before your departure from Asia, antequam ex Asia egressus es (esses, eris).

After my departure, quum discessi (issem, ero).

A reason for their love lies in these very things, in his ipsius inest causa, cur diligantur.

He shows his power, is, quantum possit, ostendit.

I do not know this man's mode of instruction, hujus viri quae (qualis) sit ratio docendi, nescio.

I invited you to what was most urgent, sic te evocabam, ut nihil acrius, neque (nihil) incitatius fieri posset.

I had nothing to write, nihil habebam, quod scriberem.

All my wishes succeed, mihi omnia, quae opto, contingunt.

I have never done anything more on my own account, than on account of my fellow-citizens, ego is sum, qui nihil unquam mea potius, quam meorum civium causa fecerim.

Nothing terrible and dreadful can befall man, homini accidere nihil potest, quod sit horribile aut pertimescendum.

I cannot write more for pain, intercludor dolore, quominus plura scribam.

558. So also single words are often expanded; e. g. *quis (nemo) est, qui*, for *quis* or *nemo*; *nihil est, quod*, for *nihil*. *Nihil est, quod non*, for *omnia*; *quid est, quod*, or *quid est causae, cur*, for *cur*; *quisquis est, qui* or *nemo (quis) est, qui non (quin)*, for *omnes*; *nullus locus est, in quo non*, for *usque quaque*; *haud scio, an*, for *fortasse*; *reliquum est, ut*; *restat ut*, for *ceterum*; *extremum illud est, ut*, for *denique* at the conclusion of a subject; *ita fit, ut*, for *hunc ob rem*; *fore, ut*, for the simple inf. future, and the like.

An ingenious mind cannot fail, in forming periods, to discover the necessary expansion of single words in complete sentences. It is an art which is not wholly confined to rules. It may be best learnt from Cicero, whose copious periods, abounding in sentences, must be abridged into only a few words and sentences, and then a comparison made between the two. But the most attention should be given to his method of arranging and interweaving, with one another, the single sentences, which belong to one great whole.

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CORRIGENDA.

Page 50, line 2, read Siciliam for Sciciliam ; p. 66, l. 25, dicēre for discēre ; p. 84, l. 34, servītus for servitus ; p. 87, l. 25, most for more ; p. 120, l. 38, esse for esso ; p. 130, l. 32, privatim for privātim ; p. 152, l. 26, contingēre for contigēre ; p. 247, l. 11, dicēre for dicēre ; p. 309, l. 31, reipublicae for republicae ; p. 395, l. 16, iḡitur for igitur ; p. 399, in the last word two l's have fallen out ; p. 405, l. 5, Licinia for Licinio ; p. 431, l. 29, ei—cui for ci—eui ; p. 558, l. 10, best for ebst.

